The Nation.

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The Week.

THE precipitate flight of the Jingo Senators at Secretary Olney's first fire suggests how delightfully they would manage a real war, if they ever happen to blunder into one. But the fact that their performances are ludicrous ought not to blind us to the fact that they are also menacing. We do not mean simply the threat to business and to the national reputation which is involved, but the great shock to our whole fabric of government which their action, if tolerated, portends. This is the view of the matter which the philosophic Paris *Temps* takes. It considers the Cuban resolutions not so much a danger to Spain, or a hope for Cuba, as a peril to our own government. They mark one step more in the usurpation of power by Congress, and the practical reducing of our country to the parliamentary régime, where all power is vested in a single assembly subject to every gust of popular passion. The *Temps* points out how, with a radically different written constitution, we are rapidly approaching the French practice. Our cabinet has no voice, theoretically, yet, in very self-defence, its members are compelled to speak out before committees and in newspaper interviews. What greater effect would Mr. Olney's recent defiance of the Senate and House have had if delivered from the Vice-President's or the Speaker's desk? A French Minister of Foreign Affairs on the tribune could have done no more. And in the eager grasping of the Senate for control of executive functions, what have we but the spirit of the French Chamber greedily absorbing into itself all the powers of the state?

There is a great deal of solemn warning for Americans in these comparisons made by a cool and impartial French critic. We are undoubtedly seeing a temper astir in Congress which leads straight to the obliteration of executive and courts, and, especially in the conduct of foreign affairs, to the destruction of all method or consistency or decency. A large part of the ferocious hostility of Congress to Mr. Cleveland is due to the fact that he has sturdily withstood its overweening pretensions. It does not add cheer to the outlook to be told, even by the warmest friends of his successor, that McKinley is not the man to lift a finger against a majority vote in party or Congress.

The Pacific Railroads funding bill, defeated in the House on Monday, was a complicated financial measure, and it is no great wonder, therefore, that it was beaten. The chances of any complicated financial measure being understood or accepted by Congress seem to be lessening every day. But the motives which were apparently strongest in bringing about the rejection of this bill had little to do with the merits of the question. There was, first, a strong desire to get even with Oakes Ames and a lot of other dead men who made a good deal of money out of the building of the road. Then there was the chance to appear in public as an implacable enemy of corporations and blood-suckers. It was not at all clear how the blood-suckers were to be cut to the heart by the defeat of this bill, but that only made the duty of voting against it more imperative. Blood-suckers are so notoriously sly that you must vote against them even in the dark. Add the general inertia and cowardice of a short session of Congress on the eve of a new administration, and the main reasons for the defeat of the bill will have been enumerated.

Meanwhile the real crisis in the relations of the Government to the roads is left more acute than ever. The debt of the road to the Government is $112,000,000, and is secured only by a second mortgage on the main line. Ahead of this comes a first mortgage on the main line and branches. If the proposition to fund is not accepted, foreclosure would appear to be the only alternative. But this would imply, in the first place, a large issue of bonds—$60,000,000, Congressman Grosvenor said—to pay off the first mortgage, and, in the second place, Government ownership and operation of the road. But we all know how very bad it is to issue bonds, and we can guess how bad it would be for the Government to run a railroad. It is perfectly certain that every prominent constituent would have to have a pass and a position on the road for his son and get his freight carried free. Congress can seriously contemplate neither bond issues on account of the road nor its operation by the Government. The only inference is that it has shirked, and means to go on shirking, its duty to settle the question one way or another. It is the same old policy of drift. Drifting is good fun and very easy, but in the end the ship goes to smash on the rocks. However, you may always hope to be dead and well out of it first.

The speech made by Mr. Brosius of Pennsylvania in favor of the merit system in the civil service of the United States before the holiday recess is published in the *Congressional Record* of January 5. It is one of the best that have ever been made on the subject. It gives Mr. Brosius a high rank both as a statesman and a debater. Naturally such a speech could not be made without provoking controversy and calling up some past wranglings on the practical execution of the law. Thus, the merits and demerits of the first Cleveland administration and of the Harrison administration were pretty fully discussed by Mr. McMillin, Mr. Henderson, Mr. Baker, and others, including Mr. Brosius himself. In the running debate, certain members took occasion to insinuate that, in their belief, the civil-service examinations were conducted in an unfair way. Mr. Anderson of Tennessee wanted to know what was the use of having the special agents of the Land Office examined in arithmetic, algebra, and geometry. Mr. Brosius replied that the examinations were in every case prepared with reference to the work to be done and were not scholastic, technical, or bookish. Mr. Anderson then asked if the Commissioner of the General Land Office could not "talk to these gentlemen in his office, and in a few minutes find out their qualifications much better than through one of these examinations—I will not say one of these absurd examinations—one of these civil-service examinations? In other words, he knows the kind of work in which they are to be engaged." It is evident that Mr. Anderson's idea of "civil service" is as hazy as that of our Gov. Black.

Gov. Black's message is on most subjects sensible, if a little youthful. What he says about prisons, banking, insurance, labor, agriculture, the insane, education, and the excise law would be denied by none but the recreant and the vile. He is equally sound about the forests, and Greater New York, and biennial sessions. The only subject on which the old Adam appears to rise within him is the reform of the civil service. On this subject he falls into the comic error, not uncommon among politicians, of saying "civil service" when he means civil-service reform, or appointment by examination. The Governor of a great State acknowledging "the value of practical civil service" sounds very like saying that a man without hands makes a poor watchmaker. What he means is that competitive examinations for appointment to the civil service may be valuable. But in what way the civil service of the State "provides capital for many who would otherwise be bankrupt" is to us unknown. It is probably one of the Governor's state secrets. He evidently knows no more about the system now in operation than the Progressive Gruber or the Trojan Van Allen. He is evidently possessed by the Gruber idea that the examinations now made are literary, and have little or no reference to the duties of the office. Nor do we understand how "civil service" works with or without "starch."

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This appears to be a bit of slang of a Troy politician, and should not have found place in a state paper. The only remedy for these obscure passages is information. The Governor should have examined the present system before writing his message, which he evidently has not done.

He calls on the Legislature to make the civil service "secure for the public, at a reasonable cost, unquestioned integrity and approved skill," etc., which is simply the usual politician's way of saying that he wishes the Legislature to let men in office "have the men they want." But we must warn him that the Legislature cannot do what it pleases in the matter. The constitutional amendment has put the "civil service" under the protection of the courts, which have decided that appointments must be made by examination, and that the examination must be competitive "so far as practicable," and it appears all but certain that the courts, and not any executive officer, will decide whether in any given case a competitive examination is practicable or not. One of the delusions under which politicians labored, at first, was that they could say themselves when an examination of any kind was necessary, and whether any examination needed to be competitive. If they had this discretion, of course, the constitutional amendment would seldom or never be put in force, and would be practically worthless. They were waked up from this by the Court of Appeals in the Aldridge case, and have ever since been rubbing their eyes and yawning, and wondering to each other whether there was no way out of this wretched business. Gov. Black seems to be still in bed on this subject.

A very striking demonstration of the real sentiment of the Republicans of the State upon the senatorship question has been made by the Buffalo *Express*. It published on Saturday about two solid pages of names of Republican voters of Erie County, over 4,000 in all, who voluntarily declared their preference for Mr. Choate for Senator. These were sent to the newspaper on postal cards within a single week, and without special effort to attract them. Gov. Black had in Erie County only 8,000 majority, so that these 4,000 voters, if they were to change to the opposite party, would completely wipe out that majority. They give their names fearlessly, and their conduct may possibly have some effect upon the Senators and Assemblymen of the county who are proposing to vote for Platt. Unquestionably they represent the views of many other Republicans who do not make public protest, and who will be heard from when the time comes to choose new Senators and Assemblymen again. There is probably no county in the State in which a canvass would not reveal a similar condition of affairs. Does anybody doubt that a canvass of this city, for example, would show an overwhelming majority of Republicans in favor of Mr. Choate? Would Mr. Platt consent to go before the people of the State as a candidate for any elective office? His dummies wished to nominate him for Governor last fall, but he would not listen to the proposition for a moment. His strength consists entirely in his ownership of the machine and of the men whom he has bought, and nobody knows this better than he.

It is the confident expectation of the Platt Republicans who are proposing to "jam through" the Legislature at this session the proposed charter for Greater New York, that they will be able to elect the first Mayor and first Municipal Assembly of the enlarged city and get possession of all the offices and patronage. They base this expectation on the vote of the various sections of the enlarged city at the election in November, which showed a plurality of 59,000 for McKinley. Taking these sections separately, and contrasting the plurality which each gave for McKinley with the plurality which each gave for Cleveland four years earlier, the following striking exhibit is made:

1896.		1892.	
New York	20,700	New York	76,000
Brooklyn	32,000	Brooklyn	30,000
Queens Co. towns	3,500	Queens Co. towns	3,300
Staten Island	1,700	Staten Island	2 000
Westchester towns	1,100	Westchester towns	1,600
Total Rep. plu...	59,000	Total Dem. plu..	112,900

This is far from being a "sure Republican" basis upon which to claim the new city. It should be borne in mind that McKinley's vote in this territory was much larger than Black's; the latter's total plurality within it being only 34,000, or 26,000 less than McKinley's. If now the Republicans put through the Legislature a charter which provides a thoroughly partisan scheme of government for the new city, what will be the first effect? Will it not be to drive back into the Democratic party all those sound-money Democrats who voted for McKinley last year? What would become of the 59,000 McKinley plurality then? It would be all lost in the present New York city if the Democrats here were to combine upon a harmony ticket. The 32,000 in Brooklyn would disappear there instantly if the Shepard Democrats were to unite with the regulars. There is in both these cities a natural Democratic majority which has never been overcome except either when the Democrats were divided, or when thousands of them consented to support an independent or citizens' ticket.

The Ohio wool-growers are again in Washington, headed by the same spokesman and making demands even more exorbitant than before. They say distinctly that the McKinley tariff was not high enough for them. That tariff gave them twelve cents a pound on clothing wool. Now they want fifteen. They want double this rate on Australian wools, to be brought about by classing all such wools as washed whether they are actually washed or not. They want other cunning provisions in reference to "skirted" wools which amount to prohibition of certain kinds of wool. Chairman Dingley asked Judge Lawrence whether any Australian wool would be brought into the country at the rates of duty proposed by him. The Judge thought there would be some, but he considered Australian wool a luxury, and thought that it ought to be subjected to a luxurious rate of duty. Even if it were wholly excluded, he said that that would be a good thing, because we paid gold for Australian wool, whereas we paid for South American wool with our products. He was asked how we should get any revenue from the duties on wool if wool were excluded, and he replied naïvely: "Why should we want any—I mean from wool? The country will be prosperous and we can get revenue from other sources." This is a conception of tariff theory which every class and interest is equally entitled to advance. If it were carried into effect, all foreign trade would be prohibited except in articles which cannot be produced in this country, such as coffee, spices, raw silk, etc., which might be made to yield $50,000,000, all the rest of the revenue being raised by internal taxation.

Senator Proctor of Vermont made a long speech on Monday in support of two amendments to the Constitution, one of which would extend the term of the President to six years and prohibit his reëlection, and the other would make the term of Representatives three years. There is one fatal objection to extending the tenure of the Executive. It is always possible that a man who was never thought of for President, and who would never have been nominated for President, may as Vice-President succeed to the office. This has happened four times within the last fifty-six years, and in three of the cases during the first few months of the term. Extend the term to six years, and we may have the White House filled for five years and eleven months of the period by a man whom the country would never have elected as President. The risks of the present system are too great to be further increased. Senator Proctor's chief argument for a change in the Representatives' term is that we now have one long session and one short, and that the first is hardly concluded before members come up for reëlection. This is a great evil, but the way to end it is not by extending the term of the Representatives. The change that is needed is one which will convene Congress in the January following an election of Representatives, and enable two long sessions to be held before the next election.

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No two authorities yet agree as to the vote received by the various candidates for President at the November election. The *Tribune Almanac* makes McKinley's total 7,105,729, and the aggregate for Bryan and Sewall and Bryan and Watson 6,491,977. The *Herald* on Monday published figures from the various Secretaries of State, which make the respective totals 7,121,342 and 6,502,600. Only thirteen of the forty-five States had a Bryan and Watson ticket, and in only three of these thirteen did it secure any considerable part of the anti-McKinley strength—namely, Massachusetts, where there were 90,530 Sewall votes and 15,181 for Watson; Alabama, 107,137 for Sewall, and 24,089 for Watson; and Texas, where the "Middle-of-the-Road" men polled 76,926 for Watson as Bryan's associate, against 284,298 for Bryan and Sewall. In all, the *Herald* figures up 144,928 votes for the Watson ticket, 123,428 for the regular Prohibitionist candidate, 13,535 for the "National" party started by a faction of Prohibitionists, and 35,306 for the Socialist-Labor ticket.

The plurality for McKinley over Bryan's total on his two tickets is 618,742. In comparing the last election with previous ones, however, the fact should not be overlooked that women voted for President in November for the first time in both Colorado and Utah, and contributed nearly half of the 134,990 plurality for Bryan in Colorado and 50,986 in Utah; the excess of males in each State being slight. On the basis of previous contests, therefore, McKinley's plurality would be about 700,000. This is not so much as was claimed by Republicans immediately after the election, but it is really more impressive than the larger plurality of 763,007 for Grant over Greeley in 1872. In that year the Republicans still controlled the count in most of the Southern States, and gave Grant such majorities as 50,000 in South Carolina and 35,000 in Mississippi. In the great Northern States between the Hudson River and the Mississippi, Bryan as a rule was beaten far more badly than Greeley—by 268,325 in New York, for example, as against 53,455 in 1872; 295,072 in Pennsylvania, as compared with 137,548; 141,517 in Illinois, against 57,006; and 102,612 in Wisconsin, against 18,520. Indiana and Michigan are the only States in all this section which fell behind the record of 1872.

An extraordinary complaint comes from New Hampshire—that the Legislature which has just assembled has not lawyers enough to fill the places on committees that require the services of members of the bar. There are but three lawyers among the twenty-four members of the Senate and only nine among the 357 Representatives, whereas it has been customary to place ten or eleven lawyers upon the judiciary committee of the House, and they have also been thought necessary upon the committee on revision of the statutes and as chairmen of the elections committee. Except in the cases of two or three Populist Legislatures, where the prejudice of that party against the legal profession found expression, we do not recall an instance where a complaint of the dearth of lawyers in such a body has been heard. The usual complaint of the farmer is that there are too many lawyers. It seems that the present situation in New Hampshire is only the culmination of a tendency which has been observed for some years. One reason is that the sessions come at a time when courts are held in some counties, and work must be prepared for courts that sit later in other counties, so that lawyers with plenty of business are not inclined to give the time to legislative service that is required. Constituencies are also less disposed now than formerly to reëlect a member, and the average lawyer is less tempted to go to the Legislature when he can generally expect to serve only a single term.

Sir William Harcourt's last budget revealed great national prosperity, but it is thought that Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's first budget will surpass it. From the returns now in for nine months of the fiscal year, it is figured that the revenue will exceed the estimates by from $10,000,000 to $12,500,000. Almost every item outruns anticipations—customs, excise, stamps, death duties, income tax—which is the surest proof of widespread prosperity. The Board of Trade returns for 1896 and the accounts of Christmas shopping have the same tale to tell. As usual, the thick-headed English are rejoicing that their imports so largely outstrip their exports. It is really painful to see a great nation, in an age that has produced a McKinley and a Méline, given over to the strong delusion that having and enjoying the good things of life is better than selling them to somebody else to enjoy. No wonder that such a belated and benighted people cling to the gold standard and free trade.

The agitation in Ireland over the report of the Commissioners on Taxation, showing that Ireland is overtaxed, in comparison with England and Scotland, about $12,500,000, promises to make Irish questions stand in the way of all other legislation in the next session of Parliament. The *Times* and some other English newspapers meet the matter in rather a savage anti-Irish spirit which only adds fuel to the flame, while even the high Tory Irish papers, such as the *Evening Mail* in Dublin, have gone over to the enemy. The Unionists and Home-Rulers have, in fact, joined forces, and stand together on platforms all over the country, as laborers in a common cause; such men as Smith Barry, the demon landlord, standing shoulder to shoulder with the demon Home-Ruler, "Tim" Healy. The English answer is simply that the Irish are overtaxed because they drink too much whiskey; to which the Irish reply that they will drink as much whiskey as they please, and that if they drink more whiskey than the English, they drink less beer, and that even if their taxes were equal, it is unfair to make them, a poor people, pay the expense of keeping up a gorgeous empire which they neither desire nor admire. The English reply that Ireland cannot be treated as a "separate entity"; to which the Irish rejoin with a large number of cases in which Ireland is treated as a separate entity by the imperial Parliament, notably in the matter of coercion. None of the coercion bills have applied to England or Scotland, and Ireland is not allowed, as other parts of the kingdom are, to have her say regarding her local legislation. To this the English rejoin that the Irish never unite till they see a chance of getting hold of some of John Bull's money; so that general recrimination is not far off. The difficulty of the situation for the Government is that "the English garrison," on whose behalf mainly the Conservatives said they opposed home rule, has turned against them—something which has not occurred since the Union. This alliance is undoubtedly an excellent thing for Ireland, but is full of embarrassment for the Ministry, and they may easily aggravate its consequences by too acrid or contemptuous a tone. On this subject the Irish will command 105 votes, the like of which has never been seen. The last time the English garrison revolted was in 1782, but there were no Catholic voters or representatives.

A recent trial in France brought to light some curious details of the capital that may be made in attacking capital, and of the good things that even a corrupt and bourgeois society may afford to its fiercest denouncer and enemy. It was a suit in which the profits of Rochefort from the *Intransigeant*, in the seven years 1889-1896, were put in evidence. When he went to Belgium with Boulanger in 1889, he left his paper in charge of M. Vaughan, with whom he has since quarrelled, and who has sued him for services rendered. An accounting was demanded, and from it it appears that Rochefort in the seven years mentioned received a salary of $20,000 a year, besides dividends amounting all told to $200,000 more—or nearly $50,000 a year. This was not bad for a paper black in the face every day over the injustice and oppression of a bourgeois society. However, Rochefort will have more reason than ever to think badly of a bourgeois society since a bourgeois tribunal has condemned him to pay a good round sum to the employees whom he was proposing to cheat.

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THE ARBITRATION TREATY.

THE fact that a treaty of general arbitration between this country and Great Britain had been negotiated and was nearly ready for final signature, was made known some weeks since, and was received with lively satisfaction by the press and public on both sides of the water, and without a single dissenting voice, so far as our observation goes. The text of the treaty, which is now published, confirms all that was expected of it, and encourages the belief that it will soon be ratified. The only note of discord that has been heard thus far is that of an ultra-Tory organ of small circulation in London. The English press generally gives hearty approval to the treaty, and in this respect is in entire accord with that of the United States so far as it has been heard from. The next question is whether our Senate will ratify it by the requisite two-thirds majority. We do not share the doubts that have been expressed on this point, for although the present Senate has shown itself extremely nervous on the subject of foreign relations, it has always been in reference to some particular thing, not to things in general. It is true that, as to Cuba and Venezuela, it has been more touchy than was needful, but that does not imply that it is opposed to arbitration, either in the abstract or in the concrete. This is the same Senate in the main that agreed to the Bering Sea arbitration, and this fact carries a good deal of assurance to the friends of the treaty. It was discovered, moreover, when the great arbitration conference was held in Washington last April, that the Senators were then favorably impressed with the project, and many of those whose attitude had been considered doubtful were inclined to give it their support. It is safe to assume that if public opinion throughout the country is as favorable to the treaty now as it was at the time when the conference was held, ratification will speedily follow.

Whether the treaty be ratified or not, the moral effect of it cannot be lost, and it is moral effect mostly that is sought for in the effort to bring it about. It puts off the motives leading to war. It accustoms the public mind to forbearance, moderation, discussion, negotiation. It causes waiting, and waiting is almost always promotive of peace. It teaches the public to expect peace rather than war, and to exhaust peaceful methods before resorting to war. When we look back upon all the bloodshed that has smeared the pages of history, at the misery and destruction that have checked the march of civilization and put a stigma upon religion itself, we must welcome as a priceless blessing the very smallest gain to the cause of peace. So we are bound to consider this treaty, even if we can imagine its rejection by the Senate, as one of the greatest triumphs of the century that is now closing—a triumph which ought to immortalize every man who has had, or shall yet have, a hand in bringing it about. If it should be rejected now, the work of resuscitation would begin again at once, and the only difference would be that the honor of carrying it into effect would belong to others.

The details of the treaty are not substantially different from those heretofore published. The fixed term of the treaty is five years. At the expiration of that time either party may withdraw by giving twelve months' notice. The promoters of the treaty did not contemplate so short a term of duration, but they will undoubtedly conclude that it is a great gain to secure any treaty which provides for arbitration before the case for arbitration arises. The greatest difficulty they had to meet was the opposition of those who said that the whole scheme was impracticable. These opposers on both sides of the water were good men and good lawyers. They were men of experience in political science, and as patriotic as anybody, and if they had not been met by those of equal learning and experience, the movement could not have succeeded at all. The result shows once more that where there is a will there is a way. It is true that the treaty has yet to be subjected to the test of experience, but it is now proved that a working plan can be put on paper that gives every promise of satisfactory results. And here it may be observed again that the main object in view is the determination of the public mind towards arbitration. This is an end in itself much more important than any single adjustment, since, as Mr. Lincoln once said, "without public opinion nothing can succeed; with it nothing can fail."

Whatever else may be said for or against the work in hand, the highest praise must be awarded to Mr. Olney and Sir Julian Pauncefote for their admirable grasp of the subject they had to deal with, and for the concise and lucid embodiment of the ideas which they had to express. Not even our Declaration of Independence, Jefferson's masterpiece in composition, surpasses the treaty in clearness of diction. To this achievement must have contributed the fortunate elimination of "national honor" as an obstructive proviso.

SPREAD OF THE MACHINE.

NEW YORK, Pennsylvania, and Illinois are the three largest States in the Union. All three were carried by the Republicans in the November election by overwhelming majorities. All three are to elect United States Senators this month, and the Republican legislators, who have the choice, held caucuses last week which either settled or clearly foreshadowed the result. In all three cases it was demonstrated that a machine absolutely controls the dominant party, and so rules the State.

The Republican caucus at Albany was nothing more than a meeting to record the decisions, as to the speakership and other offices, reached by Boss Platt in this city. Platt's organ in the press, the *Sun*, openly proclaims this fact. "The places at the disposal of the caucus," says its Albany dispatch, "had been portioned out weeks and months ago, and the session to-night was a mere formality to register the decrees already made."

The Republican caucus at Harrisburg settled the question of the senatorship by nominating as Quay's colleague Quay's man, a young Philadelphia lawyer, by a vote of nearly two to one. The business men of Philadelphia, who so often have raised corruption funds for Quay to handle in political campaigns, turned against him this time and supported Wanamaker; but they had made the monarch of the commonwealth too strong to be dethroned. The situation was clearly portrayed by Mr. Wanamaker on the eve of his defeat, when he said: "It seems as if a lease to Pennsylvania had been handed over by some one, as if it were a lease to a farm that carried with it a million of voters as if they were Irish tenants."

At Springfield the one question was whether what is known as "the State machine" can control the Legislature and elect Madden, the "boodle Alderman" of Chicago, as United States Senator. The test was to come over the nomination of Speaker in the Republican caucus. The machine devised a very shrewd scheme. Schubert, a German member from Chicago, was put forward as its nominal choice, with Curtis, a rural Representative, as its real man, whom it could bring to the front after the expected and inevitable revolt of the countrymen against letting Chicago "hog everything." The plan worked exactly as had been arranged. Governor-elect Tanner threw all his influence in favor of Curtis, and easily carried the caucus. The new Governor will now use the State patronage in behalf of the machine candidate for Senator, and no doubt of Madden's election is any longer entertained.

The Platt and Quay machines are familiar to the country. The Illinois machine is a new product in a State which has never before been thus ruled, and is consequently a subject worthy of national study. It had its origin in the city of Chicago. Something over two years ago several ward politicians, who had been active but never prominent workers in the Republican party, conceived the idea of forming an offensive and defensive office-getting "combine," to seize and parcel out all the local offices worth having, without fighting over them and struggling to snatch them from one another. This close corporation came to be known as "the 12:45 club," from the agreement of its members to meet at the lunch hour and work up their schemes. The "combine" was formed at a peculiarly favora-

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ble time, when a Republican tidal wave was seen to be sweeping over the country. It consequently had little difficulty in electing the "slate" which it carried through the county convention of 1894. The next year the 12:45 club secured control of the Republican county central committee, which meant the power to boss the primaries, select delegates, dominate conventions, and dictate candidates. This put the combination in a position where it could lay hands on all the county offices, members of the Legislature, and other places to be filled in 1896, although, to prevent possibility of any trouble, the county convention was called early in the spring, when nobody was prepared for it, instead of being postponed until autumn, according to all the precedents.

Meanwhile, the Chicago managers had been cementing an alliance with various prominent Republican politicians in other parts of Illinois, by which State offices were to be disposed of for the common interest. Tanner was picked out as the candidate for Governor—a man so bad that the Chicago *Times-Herald*, which supported McKinley, could not urge its readers to vote for him, even in preference to Altgeld. Other choice positions, local and State, were apportioned among the members of the ring, until only the United States senatorship remained to be disposed of. This was assigned to an illiterate and corrupt ward politician of Chicago, on the ground that he "must have something," and that this was the only thing left to give him!

Many of the nominations made by the machine were unsatisfactory to the better class of Republicans, but the overshadowing issue of Bryanism carried them through. During the canvass nothing was said openly about the senatorship, but soon after the election the machine announced Madden as its choice. An earnest protest was at once raised by self-respecting Republicans, but the ring has not seemed much disturbed. It had nominated and elected its men; it believed that it could depend upon them, and last week's caucus justified its confidence. With a delicate consideration for sensitive members, it has been arranged that the vote for Senator in the Republican caucus for that officer shall be taken secretly, so that any rural member who dreads the condemnation of his constituents for carrying out his bargain with the ring may conceal his action.

The now apparently assured election of Madden to the Senate means the instalment in absolute power in Chicago and Illinois of a Republican machine as bad as anything ever known in New York city and State. The Chicago *Tribune*, which has been exposing the development of the plot, says of its success:

"The election of Madden for United States Senator will signify the creation of a Chicago Tammany to boss the city and State with Republican leaders and Democratic auxiliaries, which will dictate the Legislature as absolutely and before long as corruptly as a dishonest combination of Republican and Democratic Aldermen has bossed the Council and despoiled the city."

The machine is thus supreme in the three greatest States of the Union. It is exhibiting alarming power in many other States. It gives the country Platt as Senator from New York; Quay's man from Pennsylvania; a Chicago "boodle Alderman" from Illinois. Having done this, it asks the people, "What are you going to do about it?" Unless that question shall be effectively answered, democratic government as it was conceived by the framers of the Constitution will have ceased to exist in the United States.

THE CHARTER.

THE action of the Chamber of Commerce on Thursday in regard to the proposed charter for Greater New York is a welcome sign that the people of this city are awaking to the great importance of this question. It would be an astonishing thing if Platt and Lauterbach and Lexow and O'Grady were to be permitted to have their way in this matter, while the genuine citizens of the metropolis remained in too great indifference even to utter a request for reasonable consideration. That such consideration has not been granted, and was not intended from the first to be granted, we have pointed out many times. Mr. Hewitt's excellent statement of the case in his speech before the Chamber made this point more clear than ever. He showed, in words which ought to sting the self-respect of the people of the city into a vigorous and effective assertion of itself, how abject our condition is. We are given no voice in the adoption of a new government for our city. We are informed that the charter will be "jammed through" in the form in which it suits Platt, and that protests from any other source will not be heeded.

What need is there of passing a charter this winter? Does anybody know of any one except the Platt politicians who favors such speedy passage? Why can we not have more time for its consideration, and why can we not be allowed to have it submitted to the people for adoption after its completion? There is only one reason, and that is because Platt has decided that we must have a new government adopted before the election this fall. It was Platt who decided that we must have a charter prepared by a commission, rather than by a convention, and it was Platt who decided that the work must be done within a few months. From first to last the people of the city have been permitted to have no voice in the matter. It is entirely consistent, therefore, that they are to be permitted no voice in its final adoption, but are to take whatever Platt orders his Legislature to give them. The hearings, with their limitation of twenty minutes for each speaker, and a total of only twelve days, for all branches of the subject, begun before the full charter has been laid before the public, are, as Mr. Hewitt says, an absurdity. This is not discussion or consideration, and it is not surprising that so few persons consent to dignify the proceedings by taking part in them.

We had a speedy confirmation of Mr. Hewitt's view in the announcement that, at a secret session on Thursday, the Commission decided to cut down the number of its proposed Municipal Assembly from 141 to 89, and to change the method of electing the 60 members of the lower house by going back to the present system of choosing them from Assembly districts. So far as they reduce the numbers of the proposed Legislature the changes are an improvement, but the reversion to the present district method cuts off all hope of change for the better in the character of the Aldermen. The new lower house would simply be the present Boards of Aldermen of New York and Brooklyn consolidated, and what kind of a body that would give us we can all imagine. The idea that better government could be looked for from such a body is absurd. As it stands, the proposed Municipal Assembly is not a particle less objectionable than it was before. It is still large enough to be irresponsible, there is nothing gained by having it divided into two houses, and the district method of election cuts off all hope of improvement in its personnel. In view of its present composition, the plea that it would be a useful school for education in the science of government becomes positively grotesque. Who ever heard of a useful public servant coming up through our Board of Aldermen? Occasionally some respectable man has got in there, but he has been an educated man before he entered. No uneducated man has ever obtained there any training except in political trickery and crime. As a Chicago Alderman said recently of his associates, "The only learning a Chicago Alderman has needed, of late, is to know where the man is who had the 'stuff.'" That is the kind of school in the science of government which the district system of electing local legislators collects for us.

There are two ways of criticising the charter scheme. One is to look at it as a piece of abstract constitution-making like those in which the Abbé Sieyès used to indulge, or under which such communities as Spanish-American republics live to-day—that is, a charter for a model city like Glasgow or Birmingham, in which the more intelligent classes still rule, in which offices exist for the public service only, in which the tenure is permanent, and popular attention is confined at municipal elections to municipal affairs, and in which bosses, in our sense of the term, have never been heard of, and are indeed hardly conceivable. The other is to consider first of all the special needs, dangers, and necessities of the community for which the constitution is framed, as indicated by the character of the popula-

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tion, by its established political manners, and by its political experience, if it has any experience.

Judged in the first way, there is really very little to be said against the charter. Messrs. Dillon, Low, Tracy, and De Witt have produced a very creditable piece of work. The ideal city ought to have just such an Assembly, such a Mayor, and such a Board of Improvements as these gentlemen propose. No lawgiver of modern times could have done much better if he had labored as these gentlemen have labored, *in vacuo*—that is, without reference to the existing conditions or requirements of any particular city. Approaching the charter in the other way, one reads the report of the committee almost with astonishment. We hold it to be the first virtue and first necessity of a constitution, framed for a particular community, to take into account the peculiarities or weaknesses of that community, as revealed by its past history. The organic law is meant to supply the special needs, not of any collection of good and wise men, but of that particular city. Accordingly, in looking into the history of New York for the last thirty years—that is, ever since it began to assume a metropolitan character—we find that what it has suffered from most of all, over and above the ignorance and shortsightedness of large numbers of its people, is, first, the fact that the city has been a football between the two great federal parties; the fact that the Mayors, Comptrollers, and Aldermen have been elected, not because of their fitness, but because of their opinions about reconstruction, the tariff, or Hawaii; the fact that the State Legislature at Albany has interfered frequently to make its franchises, offices and property useful in federal contests to the party commanding a majority; the fact that the voters have had a tendency to consider public places, not as instruments of public comfort and convenience, but as rewards for political activity to which men of the lowest character and most sordid motives may fairly become entitled.

These things were fully described in the report of the Tilden Commission in 1877, drawn in the main by Mr. James C. Carter. That Commission sought in its way, possibly a futile way, to provide for them. Since then a large number of enlightened citizens have labored with more experience and greater light, aided powerfully by the revelations of the Lexow committee, to turn the thoughts of the New York people to the true remedy for their woes and shortcomings—the resolute exclusion of all federal questions from the administration of their municipal affairs; the election of all officers on purely municipal grounds; and steady resistance to the interference of the Albany Legislature with their concerns for federal party purposes, and to the control of their government in any degree by outside politicians under the name of "bosses."

We have looked through the report of the committee in vain for any allusion to the evils from which the city is suffering and has suffered, or to the probability that these evils will reproduce themselves, on a still larger scale and with more mischief, in the Greater New York. The community is treated as virgin soil which simply needs cultivation in his own fashion by a Solon or a Minos. Nay, more; far from discouraging the party spirit in the conduct of city affairs, which has given us a succession of bosses, a foul and debauched police, an ignorant and corrupt Board of Education, a degraded magisterial bench, and dirty streets, it actually makes provision for its preservation and even promotion. The following passage is, in view of the facts of our case, very surprising:

> "The sentiment is indeed growing which tends to persuade the population of our American cities to vote at municipal elections on city issues, rather than on State or national issues. Nevertheless, the great body of the American people still go to the polls in cities on election day animated by partisan sentiments. Habits are slowly changed, whether by individuals or by communities, and it must be inferred that the political habits of the American electors in this particular will yield only slowly to the discipline and instruction of events."

So, in order to change the habits of the "American elector" and give him "the discipline and instruction of events," the commission provides for the election of an Assembly first of 141 salaried members and now of 89, to hold office for two years without the slightest protection against change or abolition (for political reasons) at the hands of the Albany Legislature, armed with no powers for which there is any apparent necessity, or which can have any effect but to furnish more places for the reigning boss to fill, to stimulate the unhappy feeling of the importance of federal opinions in city affairs, and to make every district a focus of low and debasing intrigue for purely federal-party purposes. "It ought to attract men of the highest character and intelligence," says the report. "Ought" is good. Will it? is the question which every man of sense and intelligence will ask himself, and which the committee ought to have asked themselves and answered. This remarkable supposition, too, is produced at a moment when the Legislature at Albany, the superior body, is absolutely "owned" by the boss for the time being, when he can by a wave of his hand prohibit or promote any species of legislation, can send any one he pleases to the United States Senate, and is at this moment rejecting for that office one of our foremost citizens in favor of a silent, corrupt, and ignorant demagogue. No wonder Tammany is in favor of a charter; no wonder that Croker has gone over to Brooklyn to lay his plans for the future with McLaughlin; no wonder Lauterbach has appeared as a "machine man" at the "hearing" to support it; and no wonder that Platt proposes to "jam it through." But where are the old-fashioned Americans?

THE ARMENIAN HORROR.

Mr. James Bryce has annexed to the new edition of his volume, 'Transcaucasia and Ararat,' just published by Macmillan, a supplementary chapter entitled "Twenty Years of the Armenian Question." This is an historical sketch of the relations of the Armenians of Asia Minor to the Turkish Government, and of their treatment by it since his last visit to their country in 1877. It has the great merit of containing as correct a narrative as we can procure of the recent troubles, largely compiled from official sources, by one who was a member of the British cabinet during some of these years.

His story is that the Armenians, barring more or less robbery by the Kurds, the wild tribes who live on their frontier, enjoyed as much piece and security as any other Christians in Turkey until the Russian war in 1877 consequent on the "Bulgarian atrocities," and the interference of England for the protection of Turkey against Russia. This intervention of England, followed by the Anglo-Turkish treaty, in which she constituted herself the special protector of the Christians, and the loss of the greater part of his European dominions, made the Sultan uneasy, and excited great hopes among the Armenians of a change in their condition. These feelings were increased by the appointment of military British consuls in many parts of Asia Minor. England was expected to occupy herself seriously with the sufferings and disabilities of the Christians. She for a time appeared to do so, and made a good many protests and remonstrances on their behalf. These protests and remonstrances produced, after a while, no effect, and finally ceased. The Sultan, finding they had ceased, and hearing more and more of the formation of revolutionary Armenian committees abroad, became sterner and more determined in his attitude towards his Armenian subjects. The Kurds were allowed to rob with more impunity, and the judges in all cases became more hostile. It was well known in Mussulman official circles that the Sultan was in this state of mind and had resolved on severe measures. The saying of a Turkish Minister, that "the way to get rid of the Armenian question was to get rid of the Armenians," was said to have been adopted as the policy of the Government. But all the British consuls reported that the Christian population in Armenia was quiet and patient, and that there was no sign among them of revolutionary purposes, though more and more persons were accused of such purposes, thrown into prison, and even tortured.

To make a long story short, in 1894, on the pretence that some districts were resisting the payment of their taxes, a large body of regular Turkish troops was sent to punish them for insubordination in the usual Turkish fashion—by wholesale massacre of men, women, and children. The British Consul estimated

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the number of those who were killed at 900. Other well-informed persons put it at 1,500. There were, as usual, fruitless British remonstrances, and for a year nothing happened. Finding he had nothing to fear from the European Powers, the Sultan resumed the massacres in September, 1895, and sixteen in different places occurred before the end of the year. All Armenians of all sexes and ages were slaughtered or burnt alive in their dwellings, and the women frequently violated. That these massacres were executed by superior order and were not outbursts of religious fanaticism, Mr. Bryce concludes from the fact that regular troops were engaged in them, that they ceased immediately on the receipt of orders to that effect, and that all foreigners were scrupulously respected wherever known. The evidence connecting the Government with them is summed up in a powerful volume by Dr. Lepsius of Berlin, entitled 'Armenien und Europa.' The British Ambassador, writing in January, 1896, put the known number of the slain down at 25,000, excluding massacres of which no details had reached him. Dr. Lepsius estimated the whole number up to June, 1896, at 85,000.

Mr. Bryce, speaking in a recent address at Aberdeen of what Great Britain might have done, said:

"The apologists of the Government tell us, by way of excuse for the submissive inaction of Britain, that her independent action would provoke a European war. No person of weight or experience has, so far as I know, yet suggested that we should do anything which would provoke a European war. Such a war would be a dire calamity, and it would not save the Armenians, who would be the first to perish if a European war broke out. But it has never yet been shown that a European war need have followed independent action by Britain. What I have recently learned, from sources at Constantinople quite as well informed as any one here can be, convinces me that the British fleet might with safety to itself, and without risk of war, have been sent to Constantinople in November, 1895, just after the first massacre, and that its appearance then would have stopped the massacres which in fact followed. The Turkish forts, such as they are, were not then prepared, nor would any other Power have deemed our action, when its disinterested motives had been explained, a *casus belli*."

He further pointed out that Lord Salisbury paid no attention to the suggestions made to him that there were places outside the Dardanelles in which the Sultan might be coerced, and that the American Minister might very well have made the loss and sufferings of the American missionaries a reason for threatening the Sultan in a way that would have incidentally helped the Christians generally; but he proved "unequal to the occasion." In other words, he was more interested in being a *persona grata* at the Yildiz Kiosk than in helping Christians. To the American missionaries themselves Mr. Bryce pays the following tribute, which is worth quoting:

"I cannot mention the American missionaries without a tribute to the admirable work they have done. They have been the only good influence that has worked from abroad upon the Turkish Empire. They have shown great judgment and tact in their relations with the ancient churches of the land, Orthodox, Gregorian, Jacobite, Nestorian, and Catholic. They have lived cheerfully in the midst, not only of hardships, but latterly of serious dangers also. They have been the first to bring the light of education and learning into these dark places, and have rightly judged that it was far better to diffuse that light through their schools than to aim at a swollen roll of converts. From them alone, if we except the British consuls, has it been possible during the last thirty years to obtain trustworthy information regarding what passes in the interior."

We need hardly add that the missionaries have fully confirmed nearly all the accounts of the atrocities.

The general summing up of Mr. Bryce's narrative is, that the massacres were deliberately planned as a political measure; that either England alone or the great Powers might have stopped them in a very early stage; that the discredit of non-interference falls more heavily on England than on any other, as she alone had a separate treaty with the Porte, providing for Christian protection, and, indeed, guaranteeing it, and had prevented Russia in 1877 from reducing the Porte to helplessness; that the responsibility of this hesitation or timidity must be borne by Lord Salisbury, who himself, in 1877, formulated the policy which made England in a certain sense an ex-officio patron of the Christians. There are some plain inferences to be drawn from this, though Mr. Bryce does not draw them. The principal one is, that, contrary to the general expectation, Lord Salisbury has not proved to be a man of action at all; that his epigrammatic and caustic speech really gives no idea of his real character, which at crises is apparently one of great irresolution; that at Berlin he was probably dominated completely by Disraeli, and that the Irish are the only people who have any reason to be afraid of him.

MORE SAVANTS IN CONVENTION.

JANUARY 3, 1897.

ON the last three days of the year just passed, the Modern Language Association of America and the Central Division of the Association held their annual meetings — the National Society at Cleveland, as the guests of Western Reserve University, and the Central Division at St. Louis, as the guests of Washington University. The National Society has usually met in the East, most often at Washington, last year at New Haven. Western members thus found it difficult and expensive to attend the meetings, and, as Western Reserve University had for some years invited the Society to its halls, the invitation was accepted, and, for the second time since its organization, the Society crossed the Alleghanies and made it possible for a larger number of Western men to attend its sessions. In fact, it was generally understood that the Central Division would reciprocate and meet with the National Society. The step taken by the national body was, however, misunderstood, and the committee with whom the final decision rested called the meeting of the Central Division at St. Louis, and for the same days on which the National Society was to meet at Cleveland. For a time it seemed as though the two bodies would drift quite apart, but better counsels prevailed, and supplementary resolutions defining terms of coörganization were adopted.

Under the circumstances, it is of much interest to observe what parts of the country were represented at each meeting. The National Society listened to papers from Rhode Island, New York, Ohio, Michigan, and Maryland—really a very restricted territory. With one exception, the New England people found Cleveland too far west, while the only representatives of the South came from Johns Hopkins, the birthplace of the society and the home of its secretary and treasurer. There were no papers from west of Ann Arbor and none from Canada. Of members not reading papers there were representatives from all parts of the North as far west as Iowa; but the Ohio colleges furnished the larger number. On the other hand, neglecting the two papers sent on from Stanford University, the St. Louis meeting listened to papers from Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana; that is, from States bordering on or very near the Mississippi. Not counting the delegation from Chicago, the birthplace of the Central Division and the home of its secretary, readers of papers at St. Louis were almost exclusively from the middle South. It is thus evident that the two bodies are representative of the North and the South at least as much as they are of the East and the West. The point of nearest approach is in the Northwest, where the two leading institutions part company, Chicago sending a large delegation and three papers to St. Louis, and Michigan doing the same by Cleveland.

The representation at either convention naturally depends somewhat on the place where the meeting is held. Thus, when the National Society met at New Haven a year ago, nine papers were brought from New England colleges, and five from the University of Pennsylvania; but this year Pennsylvania sent no papers at all to Cleveland, and all New England sent but one. The institutions that are well represented, regardless of the place of meeting, are Michigan and Johns Hopkins; the former sending three papers to both New Haven and Cleveland, the latter sending two to New Haven and three to Cleveland. Such facts as these had to be considered when choice was made of the place of the next meeting, and Philadelphia was decided upon —in spite of hearty invitations from Toronto and Virginia—in order that the meeting might not so soon again be far from New England and the eastern Southern States.

The opening paper at Cleveland was by Prof. Hempl of Ann Arbor, and explained the difference between such words as learnèd —learn'd, blessèd—bless'd, etc., as due to the different rhythmical conditions under which the adjective and the participle respectively occur. In the absence of Prof. Wood of Johns Hopkins, his paper on Goethe's sonnets was read by his assistant, Dr. Baker, and aroused considerable interest. Prof. Scott of Ann Arbor presented a suggestive point of view from which to study the development of power in the command of language, but his title, "Diseases of English Prose: A Study in Rhetorical Pathology," did not find favor. Dr. McKnight of Cornell gave a résumé of his studies in the order of words in primitive Teutonic. In a paper on *b* after *r* and *l* in Gothic, Prof. Hench of Michigan showed the invalidity of the grounds on which this *b* has hitherto been regarded as a stop consonant.

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The method pursued by Dr. Charles Davidson in his paper on "The So called Eye-Rimes in *o* in Modern English," subjected the paper to criticism. There were two papers on comparative literature—one by Dr. Meyer of Western Reserve University, on "Machiavelli and the Elizabethan Drama," and one by Mr. R. E Neil Dodge of Brown University on "Spenser's Debt to Ariosto." And Dr. Marden of Johns Hopkins read a paper on the "Crónica de los rimos antiquos." The boundaries of the *ka* and *che* districts in the north of France were traced by Dr. Bonnotte, also of Johns Hopkins. Dr. Woodward of Columbia made an interesting report of the work of the Rumanian Academy, and read a paper sent by Prof. Todd, giving an account of the life and work of Gaston Paris.

The address delivered on Tuesday evening by Prof. Thomas of Columbia, President of the Association, on "Literature and Personality," not only was a very satisfactory presidential address, but was at the same time preeminently the most valuable paper of the session; reminding one of the address delivered some years ago at the meeting at Cambridge by the Society's distinguished President, James Russell Lowell. Among the papers read at St. Louis, one by Prof. Fluegel of Stanford, presenting some new interpretations of certain passages in Chaucer's Prologue, and one by Prof. Weeks of the University of Missouri, on experimental physics, demand special mention.

JANUARY 3, 1897.

At the twelfth annual meeting of the American Historical Association, which was held in this city on December 29-31, an important step towards future prosperity was taken, some interesting papers were read and discussed, the first report of a commission destined to do great things for the future of the study of American history was presented, and a committee was appointed which may materially assist in the needed work of regularizing education in history in the secondary schools. The large attendance of members from all parts of the country testified to the wisdom of the council in fixing New York as the place of meeting, and the arrangements made by the local committee were generally commended. At the Tuesday morning session, President Warfield of Lafayette College read a paper on Melanchthon, with special reference to the celebration of the quater-centenary of his birth, and among the other papers to be noted was a vigorous declaration by Mr. C. H. Hart of Philadelphia that Peale's celebrated original portrait of Washington was only defaced and not destroyed by the Tories in the days of the Revolution. In the evening Dr. Storrs of Brooklyn gave his address as President of the Association, in which he emphasized the services to the country of men hardly mentioned by the historians.

The most interesting feature of the Wednesday morning session was a brilliant paper by Prof. J. W. Burgess of Columbia University on "Political Science and History," which was followed by a lively discussion; and in the evening session there took place a conference on the teaching of history in which Profs. Herbert B. Adams of Johns Hopkins University, Emerton of Harvard, Andrews of Bryn Mawr, McMaster of the University of Pennsylvania, and Robinson of Columbia were the speakers. The lateness of the hour prevented the discussion from being as fruitful as had been hoped, and it was generally desired that the subject might be further discussed at the next annual meeting.

At the Thursday morning session, Prof. Jameson of Brown University presented the first report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission, which was constituted by the Association last year. This Commission has set out in workmanlike fashion to do for the United States what the Royal Historical Manuscripts Commission has for some years been doing for Great Britain. Its first task has been to discover what manuscript material exists for American history in public or private hands. The first part of the report, which will in due time be issued to the members of the Association, deals with this question, and the Commission will next proceed to print, in full and not in the form of calendars, series of the most important documents it has brought to light. Prof. Jameson's report was listened to with deep interest, and was followed by a paper by Prof. F. J. Turner of Wisconsin, on "The West as a Field for Historical Study." This paper was read by Mr. Reuben G. Thwaites, and was favorably commented upon in effective speeches by Professors McLaughlin of Michigan and Woodrow Wilson of Princeton.

At the last session, on Thursday evening, it was recommended that the next meeting of the Association should be held at Cleveland on the last three days of 1897, and the names of the officers for the year were announced. Mr. James Schouler was chosen president, Dr. George P. Fisher and Mr. J. F. Rhodes, vice-presidents, and the other officers of the Association were reëlected, with the addition of Dr. E. M. Gallaudet of Washington in the place of the late Dr. G. Brown Goode. At this concluding session a letter was read from the National Educational Association, requesting that a committee should be deputed from the Historical Association to draw up a scheme of historical instruction for secondary schools in conjunction with a committee of its own. The request was favorably received, for one of the great needs in historical teaching is better coördination between the secondary schools and the colleges, and a committee was appointed to deal with the question consisting of Professors George B. Adams, Lucy M. Salmon, Herbert B. Adams, Charles H. Haskins, and H. Morse Stephens, with power to add two to their number.

No account of the recent meeting would be complete without some mention of its social success. It was feared that the change from Washington, where the kindly hospitality of the Cosmos Club had always been so much appreciated, to New York, would cause the cessation of that friendly intercourse between the older and younger historians and teachers of history, and between former colleagues and former masters and pupils, which had been such an attractive feature of the gatherings of the Association. To prevent the scattering of the members, a room was hired in the Windsor Hotel as the headquarters of the Association, in which the friendly intercourse of the Cosmos Club was renewed upon a larger scale. The local committee went a step further, and organized an Association breakfast, which was held at the Windsor Hotel on Wednesday, December 30. Dr. Storrs presided, and over a hundred members sat down to the breakfast. The speeches which followed were brief, but effective, especially those of the genial chairman, of Mr. Justin Winsor, of Mr. Edward Eggleston, and of President Gates of Amherst. This brief mention of the social features of the meeting should not conclude without a word of recognition for the kindness of the Authors' Club, which invited members of the Association to be present at their unique watch-night celebration; and a cordial mention of the untiring labors of the local committee, Mr. C. W. Bowen and Prof. W. A. Dunning, to which the success of the meeting was mainly due.

It should be added that the annual meeting of the guarantors of the *American Historical Review* was held in connection with the meeting of the Association. The Hon. Peter White of Marquette, Mich., was elected chairman of the meeting, Prof. W. M. Sloane was reëlected an editor of the *Review*, and a vote of thanks was passed to the board for its successful labors during the past year.

JANUARY 3, 1897.

The fifth annual meeting of the American Psychological Association was held in Boston and Cambridge in connection with the American Naturalists and the Affiliated Societies on December 29 and 30. The programme was very crowded, and was made more so by the setting apart of the whole of Tuesday afternoon for the Naturalists' discussion of Heredity. The business meetings were agreeably broken by the luncheon given by the President and Fellows of Harvard College on Wednesday, and by the lecture and reception by Professor Agassiz on Tuesday evening. The two tributes to the memory of Louis Agassiz, made respectively by President Eliot and Prof. W. James, were heard and appreciated by the members of all the societies. In the programme of the Psychologists there was little that lends itself to popular statement. Perhaps most of the members would agree that the most interesting experimental communication was made by Prof. G. A. Tawney, formerly of Princeton, now of Beloit College, Wisconsin, who showed the extraordinary influence which suggestion has in the discrimination of two points in contact with the skin. He found that the reduction of the "double-point threshold"—the smallest distance apart at which two points are apprehended as two—is reduced by practice not alone for the region directly stimulated, and not alone for the homologous points on the opposite side of the body, but also for the whole surface. The variations which he was able to introduce in the results both for simultaneous and for successive two-point stimulations, led him to the conclusion that suggestion directly influenced the so-called "threshold." His paper is to appear in an early number of Wundt's *Philosophische Studien*. Mr. J. E. Lough of Harvard reported an apparatus whereby he demonstrates that a given intensity of light stimulation may be matched by a longer or shorter duration of stimulation of a light of a different intensity; and made some generalizations regarding the theory of sensation intensities.

The more philosophical papers were put together on Wednesday morning, but the time was too short for the proper reading and discussion of them. One discussion was precipitated by two papers on "Mind and Body," but that was cut short. The council of the Association is charged to reconsider (for the next meeting) the question of admitting and dividing off the more unpsychological papers. In the afternoon session on the same day the President, Prof. Fullerton, saw fit to challenge the members of the Association — or some of them—who have had the temerity to hold positive views regarding the "Knower in Psychology." His address appears in full

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in the January number of the *Psychological Review*; and the proceedings will appear in the same journal for March.

Besides the regular programme of the Association, two other matters occupied the attention of members—one, the preliminary report of the committee appointed last year to consider the subject of Physical and Mental Tests, and the other the discussion of the Naturalists on the "Inheritance of Acquired Characteristics." In the latter very little that was new came out, in spite of the inordinate length of the discussion. In this a poor example was set to the philosophers. The committee on tests reported a provisional list which is to be printed and considered for another year. The new officers for next year are: President, Prof. Mark Baldwin of Princeton; Councillors, Prof. Josiah Royce of Harvard and Prof. Joseph Jastrow of Wisconsin University.

THINGS GRECIAN.

LONDON, December 26, 1896.

ON Christmas eve the authorities of the British Museum made public, with a promptness in giving that is in harmony with the season, a summary description of the new treasure from Egypt which came into the Museum late in the second week of December. The papyrus MS. consists of thirty columns of writing, half of which contain the full number of thirty-three complete lines, while the remaining fifteen columns have been variously broken and torn. To piece out what they lack, there are fortunately numbers of small fragments, some of which have already found their place, while there is reason to hope that, with time, patience, and skill, others will eventually be so fitted in as to make good in some measure the mutilation which is due to rough handling by the first discoverers. The MS. is well written in large uncials, and appears to belong to the first century B. C. The date of its proposed publication by the Trustees cannot, for reasons suggested above, be definitely fixed.

Nothing in the way of a general heading to indicate the authorship appears upon the papyrus, though there are titles for special poems, such as "Theseus," "Io," "Idas." It is not clear, apparently, whether the poems bearing these titles are epinician or not, though they and all the others appear in some sort to celebrate victories, and a certain number of them are easily identified as containing known fragments of Bacchylides. To readers of Pindar's first Olympian ode it will be interesting to know that, when the Trustees of the British Museum shall have published this MS., we shall be able to read the rival ode written to commemorate the same event by Bacchylides; a composition which, as beseemed the occasion and competition with so great a fellow-poet, was of considerable length. In addition to Hiero of Syracuse, Lachon of Ceos (Bacchylides, like his maternal uncle, Simonides, was of Ceos), Alexidamus of Metapontum, Tisias of Ægina, and Automedes of Phlius are among the victors named. The victories celebrated, like those of Pindar's odes, are in all the principal games, Olympian, Pythian, Isthmian, and Nemean. It is too early as yet to say how many poems are contained in the new MS., but there are not fewer than fifteen, and probably not more than twenty, varying in length from fourteen to two hundred lines.

It has become the fashion, especially of late, to visit Bacchylides with a certain amount of scorn, discoverable by the microscopic eye in various passages of Pindar. However, the definiteness of Pindar's reference often leaves a great deal to be desired, and the estimates of his rival's literary merits based upon so very shifting a foundation may have to be reconsidered. For now, though we are not to have a complete Bacchylides, there will be enough to form a sound opinion of his poetical power. It appears that he is easier than Pindar, has a graceful and pleasant style, and a picturesque, poetical vocabulary, but little or none of Pindar's strength and splendor, and nothing of Pindar's forced and strained diction. There is a well-known passage of intense obscurity at the close of Pindar's second Pythian ode, where, as in a far plainer passage of his second Olympian ode, the Theban bard mocks at poetical skill that is acquired and not inborn. Here and elsewhere in Pindar Bacchylides is supposed to have been satirized, and Bacchylides is supposed to have answered Pindar in lines preserved by Clement of Alexandria, wherein he declares substantially that absolute originality in song is a thing that never was and never will be. The poetical workmanship of the newly discovered epinician odes of Bacchylides would seem to agree with this point of view, and to indicate that the lesser bard of Ceos was distinguished rather for the Sophoclean quality of sweetness and serenity than for the boldness of a Pindar or an Æschylus. His originality, such as it is, shows rather in the convivial strains preserved under the title of love-songs among Bergk's fragments. Of these lighter songs, in which Bacchylides shows qualities not possessed by Pindar—a superior nimbleness of wit and a real sense of humor—the newly found papyrus unfortunately gives us nothing.

These newly recovered epinician odes will be published for all to read as soon as may be, probably in the course of a few months. In looking forward to their perusal, it will probably be well to forget the somewhat scornful attitude adopted of late toward the nephew of Simonides, notably by Flach, and to remember the high place among lyric poets assigned to Bacchylides by the unknown authors of two well-known numbers (184 and 571) in the ninth book of the Palatine anthology. The first begins, "Pindar, thou holy mouthpiece of the Muses, and Bacchylides, thou Siren of smoothe and specious tongue," while in the other epigram we read that "Alcman was sweet, but Bacchylides distilled from his lips speech that was delicious to the ear." We may well rejoice at the prospect of knowing at first hand a lyric poet in whom Sophocles delighted, and who was the inspirer of some of Horace's most memorable strains.

The second instalment of the programme or album (λεύκωμα) of the Olympic games of 1896 contains a complete account of the Panathenaic stadium (where the recent games were held), written by Prof. N. G. Politis, who lectures at the University of Athens on mythology and Greek archæology, and is well known among anthropologists as a careful student of Greek folk-lore, ancient and modern. This monograph is published in modern Greek, with a French translation in parallel columns. It follows the history of festal games, especially of horse-races, in Attica from the mythical days of Theseus, and the epoch of those chariot races pictured upon the Dipylon vases, to the recent restoration for athletic purposes of the ancient Athenian stadium. From the heroic days of Theseus to the modern munificence of M. Avérof is a far cry, but the broad view of the unity of history implied by such a continuous account is one which would assuredly have rejoiced the soul of the late Prof. Freeman.

The Panathenaic stadium was not built until after the battle of Chæroneia, when the great Athenian administrator Lycurgus took it in hand. Before this, during all the most glorious days of Athenian power, the Panathenaic games were held in an open space half way between Athens and the Peiræus. There were apparently no special seats for the spectators; only a wooden stand for the presiding magistrates is likely to have been provided. When Lycurgus chose the site for the stadium, Dinias, its proprietor, presented it to the city out of regard for his friend Lycurgus. The mere preparation of the ground required vast expense, and Eudemus, a Platæan domiciled at Athens, is formally thanked by a vote passed in 329 B. C. for contributing generously to the expenses. Only a few seats of honor were provided by Lycurgus's scheme, and the spectators had to sit on the ground for the most part, as indeed was the case in 1875, when there was an Olympic celebration which attracted no great notice outside of Greece. It may be that the recorded work done on the stadium in the second century after Christ provided seats of some kind, but the sumptuous renovations and decorations undertaken by Herodes Atticus eclipsed all that had gone before. In the space of four years he made over the whole stadium with marble, and, as Pausanias enthusiastically exclaims, "He nearly exhausted the quarries of Mt. Pentelicus." That was an age when mere bigness riveted popular attention, and excited such admiration for the stadium that its fame eclipsed for the moment everything else at Athens, even the Parthenon. Indeed, this new stadium was built so as to accommodate gladiatorial shows and vast numbers of wild beasts hunted down for the amusement of the crowd. After this we are prepared to hear that in mediæval times the stadium was altered so as to serve as an arena for knightly tournaments, and we feel, with some satisfaction, that its recent reconstruction at the expense of M. Avérof has restored it to uses far more in harmony with those contemplated by Lycurgus, Dinias, and Eudemus than any of the shows for which it was used in Hadrian's and Herod's day.

LOUIS DYER.

TAINE'S PROVINCIAL NOTE-BOOKS.—I.

PARIS, December 31, 1896.

FEW men have had as much influence as Taine on the present generation in France. Renan may be compared to him in this respect, but the influence of Renan will perhaps be more ephemeral, as he applied his extraordinary powers of mind to subjects which have little to do with what might be called the common life of a nation. Taine attempted, and partly succeeded in the great task, to explain the origins of contemporary France. His three volumes on the Old Régime, the Revolution, the Modern Régime, have been read with avidity by all politicians as well as by all philosophers; they will be read for a long time by all who try to understand the enigmas of the troubled history of France during the present century.

Taine had to accept in his youth places which yielded him a small salary, before he achieved a complete independence. From 1863 to 1866 he was examiner for the military

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school of Saint-Cyr, a very tedious work, which obliged him to travel all over France and to examine on literature and history a number of ignorant youths. He fortunately had the habit of keeping diaries and of taking notes wherever he was. The notes he took in England helped him to write his 'History of English Literature'; his notes taken in his wanderings in Paris were used in various books. Those taken in the French province in 1863–1865 were never revised, and he himself thought them too fragmentary to form the foundation of a book. His heirs have recently published them in a volume, without any alteration. They have been blamed for it by some critics; some others say that these 'Carnets de Voyage: Notes sur la Province,' are unworthy of the author of so many important works. I cannot agree with these critics. The intelligent reader can perfectly well make allowance for the rapidity, the disorder of the impressions noted in this posthumous publication; he will not regret to see the mind of Taine, so to speak, at work in such an interesting field as the province and cities of France; and he will discern in these sincere and spontaneous impressions the germs of many of the ideas which found their definite form in the 'Origines de la France Contemporaine.'

In some respects, what we call "la province" is to many a terra incognita. It was so to Taine, who had received in his youth a classical education at the École Normale, and whose mind was associated chiefly with all that is represented in the short word "Paris." For centuries, France was subdivided into provinces, well defined by geographical, ethnographical, and geological differences; these divisions were consolidated and perpetuated under the feudal régime. The process of centralization lasted for four centuries; it was the work of the monarchy and of its great ministers. It became complete only when the Revolution broke down all the barriers of the past, abolished all feudal rights and privileges, destroyed the powers of the local parlements, and substituted artificial departments for the old provinces. Since that time, it may be said that there have been no provinces, only "*la province.*" The Empire continued the work of the Revolution; the various governments which have in turn administered France, alike found it convenient to use the all-powerful machinery prepared by the absolute monarchy and completed by the Revolution.

In his wanderings through France, Taine came chiefly in contact with the humbler instruments of French centralization, the professors in the University of France, the colony of office-holders which is found in every departmental and arrondissemental *chef-lieu*, the officers of the army. At Douai he meets an old comrade married to a Bordelaise:

"She receives me in a colored apron coming out of the kitchen. 'I occupy myself,' she says, 'with my kitchen; my husband scolds me, but I answer that he likes a good dish. He wants me to go out into the world; I have not been once in three years—it bores me. One has so much to do at home with two children. . . . Oh, he will not go to Paris—I don't want him to go; we will remain here.' There are many such women in the province; they have not much to say and are ill at ease at the dinner-table. Society embarrasses them. . . . My friends tell me that the majority of these women are *pot-au-feu* to excess; only a few pretend to be fashionable, to be Parisiennes. A woman in the province most frequently finds her employment and the complete use of her faculties in needlework, clothes-mending, and the management of the household."

Taine finds the official society at Douai correct and agreeable. The Dean of the Faculty gives soothing lectures on history, to which ladies take their daughters; no serious professors nor pupils. Good society — magistrates, officers, retired functionaries—comes to these Faculty lectures to occupy an hour. A Faculty is a literary casino.

At Le Mans, Taine writes:

"How one feels, in a single walk, the social state of France. How low still is the body of the nation, how near the serfs and burghers of the Middle Ages, with functionaries instead of noblemen. These functionaries, without consulting them, provide them with markets, courts, schools. On the whole, the masses have what they want—the narrow bourgeois life and the privilege of selling as they like their grain, their fruit. . . . Equality is practised; there is no favor, even for the very noble or very rich; the judges judge abstractly, without knowing names. The most salient trait, one which produces much good as well as much evil, is this: The constructor of France seems to have said to himself that there is a certain amount of good things, and that each ought to have a bit; that nobody ought to have a very large bit, but almost all a small or a moderate-sized bit. The generals of division, bishops, heads of colleges, rectors, directors, etc., attain to 15,000 francs or the like; the small salaries of 1,200 to 3,000 francs are innumerable. Each advances a little every three or six years—an increase of 100 to 500 francs, a cross of Knight of the Legion of Honor, afterwards of Officer. These officials are cared for in their old age; they have a pension, their widows also; in life, with this gradual advancement, every one knows nearly where he will be in twenty years. Great injustices are nearly impossible; many small discontents, annoyances, jealousies, hopes, expenses, economies—no great despair. Such is life made rational."

It is impossible to give a clearer account of our great set of functionaries, a true nation within the nation. Hear, again, this:

"Society is like a great garden: it is cultivated either for peaches and oranges or for carrots and cabbages. Our garden is prepared wholly for carrots and cabbages. The ideal is that the peasant should have meat to eat, and that my shoemaker, having saved three thousand a year, should be able to send his son to the Law School. The distinguished men attain no eminence—at the utmost a meagre pension; their salary just helps them not to starve. Colonel L., who entered the Polytechnic School at the age of sixteen, and came out of it second on the list after forty-four years of service, has a pension of four thousand a year."

Taine, at the time an examiner, condemns the system of examinations, and calls it Chinese, yet admits the necessity of a test when there is so much competition for office. Memory has too great a part in examinations. At the examination for admission to the title of *agrégé* in history, a candidate gave the ancient and modern history of a hundred and fifty islands in the Mediterranean Sea, etc.

Taine consoles himself with the beauties of nature and with the masterpieces of art; his descriptions are charming. He tries also to study the popular types; he describes admirably the Bretons and the Bretonnes. But what curious contrasts in his notes. Speaking of the young Bretonnes, he says: "No regular beauty, no air of health, something weak, suffering, pale, a little crushed; but in some it produces an admirable expression—perfect virginity, the virginity of body and soul, an exquisite sensibility, a charming delicacy, a strange suavity. I think of the Indian saying, 'Don't strike a woman, even with a flower.'" "Certainly the pure heroines of ancient chivalry, the mystic lover of the novels of the Holy Grail, Elaine, Yolande, come from there. . . ." And on the next page you may read this: "The soldier who takes me to the barrack tells me that no country has such loose morals. In the daytime, they don't look at you; in the evening you have but to speak." Here we can point to one of the great defects of Taine—his love of generalization, on insufficient data. It is hard to condemn a whole race on the testimony of a soldier. This passage reminded me of a well-known story of the man who, having found a red-haired servant in an inn, writes in his diary, "Here, all servants are red-haired."

The ideal formed by Taine in his studies and in his Parisian life is offended everywhere in the province. He finds everywhere an inferior view of life, and French democratic society appears to him flat and monotonous. "To be complete," he says, "a man ought to have leisure, to have no forced and daily work; he ought not to be always thinking of his own interests; he ought to be preoccupied with general views, like the British aristocrat of the present day, like the Romans and Athenians of antiquity. An aristocracy, in order to last, must employ its strength and its time for the public." He feels at the same time that a country is like a garden, that all soils are not alike. "It is absurd to try to grow bananas on the chalk of Champagne; in short, France produces now the sort of vegetables which it is able to produce. For elevated minds, the remedy consists in not falling into the bourgeois life, in living alone like a Buddhist."

Taine becomes at times severe to injustice; he is haunted by the English ideal of the gentleman, and pretends not to find it in France:

"The gentleman is not found in France. See all these great personages, functionaries or proprietors, who come to solicit us for their sons, asking us to deprive somebody else of a place in order to give it to them. Whether impudently or delicately asked, it remains, nevertheless, an injustice. They consider favor, even improbity, as quite a natural thing; . . . it is a tradition in France. Under the former monarchy it was necessary to solicit the judges. . . . At the present moment you cannot get an article in the press except by favoritism. On the contrary, C. told me that in England you never thanked a paper for an article; it would be an insult. See in Carlyle's Life of John Sterling the letter of Sir Robert Peel to the editor of the *Times*, and the answer. Here it is the kingdom of grace, and there the kingdom of justice."

Correspondence.

PENNSYLVANIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There never has been a time since 1860 when Pennsylvania had a Democratic party in full accord with the party which went by that name in the rest of the Union. No sooner had the war begun than Samrandallism took possession of the Pennsylvania Democracy (such as it was) and perverted it to the purposes of the Republican party. The whole struggle of the Democratic party in the State since the close of the war has been an internecine one, in which the party in the rest of the Union has had no sympathy and little interest. Sound Democratic doctrine, good government either State or Federal, has cut no figure in Pennsylvania. No appeal has been made to the people to uphold tariff reform and sound money as Democratic doctrine. The party has been contented with an occasional success wrought out by Republican Mugwumps upon local and personal issues; and

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the long habit of accepting any proposition which seemed novel and popular at the time, had its logical conclusion in the last Democratic convention which met at Harrisburg in September and declared for free silver, in the face of the declaration of the same convention at Allentown, in April, that it was "absolutely opposed to the free coinage of silver."

The "regular" party has gone to pieces. It is a total wreck so far as its usefulness as a part of any national organization is concerned. It is in the hands of the Populists, who have no knowledge of nor care for the inherent principles which have made its glorious history. It cannot hope to elect anybody to anything. It has no claim to any consideration from the masses of the voters of the Commonwealth, and it gets no such consideration. It is not taken into the account in any State or county election where any important issue is involved. It is not a factor in the equation of any public question, and it does not intend to be. It officially declares its desire that all who believe in tariff reform, sound money, and the policy of the only Democratic administration since the war, shall keep away from its primaries and keep out of its conventions. Bryanism and Gormanism are its creed and it has no future. It is too dead to skin.

But nowhere in the Union is there a State where the real Democratic party of Jefferson and Jackson and Madison and Benton and Tilden and Cleveland has a more splendid opportunity than in Pennsylvania. No prominent Democrat in the State who has any standing for courage and brains will take any part in the folly which has led the "regular" organization to destruction. Every sturdy Democrat who has heretofore guided the councils of the party, until it surrendered to Populism, has definitely cut loose from that error, and, by a most natural gravitation, has allied himself with the National organization which adopted the Indianapolis platform and nominated Palmer and Buckner. The Republican party in the State is ready for disintegration so soon as the Jeffersonians make the issue of good government plain to the people. Its willingness to make Quay its candidate for President, its present limitation of choice for United States Senator to Penrose (!) and Wanamaker (!!), its complete possession by the "combine," the very attitude of its worst elements as advocates of Reform (!!!), the compulsory retirement of its intelligence to make room for its cunning—would work its immediate downfall if the Sound-Money, Tariff-Reform Democratic organization were as fully established as it will be a year hence. Whether Quay wins by electing Penrose, or Martin wins by electing Wanamaker, or Cameron succeeds himself, as a person no better than he should be, but no worse than the others, it is all the same. There is no help for Pennsylvania save in a return to first principles through an active, aggressive, continuous campaign by the National Democracy; and its efforts in this State ought to have the encouragement of all who desire good government. The Democratic party of the future can go into power at the next Presidential election. It is on the cards to make Pennsylvania contribute to that result thirty-two members of the electoral college; and Pennsylvania, Democratic, means Sound Money, Tariff Reform, a healthy and adequate banking system, wise fiscal and currency legislation, and a firm and dignified foreign policy.

The principles set out in the Indianapolis platform are the only reliable foundations upon which any party can build a policy that will have or ought to have the support of patriotic Americans, and they have the sanction of all Democratic precedent. They will have, because they will deserve to have, the patriotic endorsement of the people throughout the Union, as they would have had it if the Chicago convention had not been stampeded to silverism. A large majority of the Bryan people who were Democrats in June last now see the egregious blunder of the Chicago platform. They are already cursing their blind leaders who have led them into the pit; and they will repudiate that platform and adopt that of Indianapolis as soon as they have a reasonable opportunity. Vast numbers of intelligent Republicans have been entirely satisfied with Mr. Cleveland's administration, and are ready to support the Indianapolis platform as better than anything they can expect from the Republican party. When these see the lines formed upon the true doctrines which the National Democrats have reasserted, and which Mr. Cleveland has practised with such admirable vigor, the end of anarchy and misrule will be in sight.

B. C. Potts.

Media, Pa., January 5, 1897.

THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his last admirable report, Secretary J. Sterling Morton, in his usual terse language, recommends active measures for the purpose of opening up new markets for our farm products. It is to be hoped that his successor will follow up this timely suggestion by sending commercial agents to places abroad where there is prospect of establishing or extending such markets. There is great need of such agents to keep the farmers advised of the demands of the markets, the quality of goods and the style of packages desired by the consumers, etc. The farmers cannot be content with the reports obtained through the export merchants only, as their interests do not always agree with those of the producers.

But there is another class of agents who might be even more useful to the farmers, and by the appointment of whom the Department of Agriculture would make itself appreciated. I refer to scientifically and practically educated farmers, or, rather, specialists in the various branches of agriculture, who should be sent abroad to agricultural centres to study improvements and report on progress made in farming and industries connected with farming. Most governments have military attachés employed in their embassies and legations. The United States is not a military country, but a farming and industrial country. Why not have highly educated agriculturists attached to our legations abroad?

Some years ago a voluminous book was published by the Government, containing reports from our consuls, especially on cattle and dairying. Among a lot of rubbish the book did give some valuable information, but most of the contents bore witness to the not very surprising fact that the writers knew little or nothing of what they were talking about. How should they know? Farming, cattle-raising, dairying, etc., are no longer simple things that any practical man can master without special education. Science has entered the field, and it is now necessary to make the profession a life study in order to be a successful farmer, or dairyman, or fruit-grower, or expert in any other branch.

The Department of Agriculture has been, and is partly yet, the subject of ridicule, and is by many regarded as an almost useless institution. It is comparatively new, and its scope of usefulness must gradually be found and developed. If properly employed, it will in time prove invaluable, and we shall wonder how the country could ever get along without it. Secretary Morton has done great work in purifying the department, abolishing abuses and spoils, and saving some millions of dollars which may be turned to better account. His exposure of the ridiculous and scandalous seed-distributing business will bear fruit in time, and the congressional seed-peddling will have to go. A splendid system of report and coöperation between the excellent experiment stations all over the country and the department has been instituted. A dairy department has been established which has already done good work under the direction of its efficient chief, Major Henry E. Alvord, and forms a valuable basis for further development of useful measures in the interest of the great dairy industry. Mr. Morton's successor will have a clear track to follow, and must rejoice that the purifying work has been done, and that he can devote his energy more fully to the introduction of new, useful measures such as the development of our markets, and educational work.

Thousands of dairymen all over the country hope that Mr. McKinley's Secretary of Agriculture will be a representative dairyman like ex-Governor W. D. Hoard of Wisconsin, and that the just claims of the great dairy industry will be considered by the incoming Administration. In no branch of farming is competition keener, and, if we are to hold our own in foreign markets, we must know what is being done abroad. J. D. Frederiksen.

Little Falls, N. Y., January 8, 1897.

CONCERNING ACCREDITED SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The system of admitting students to college on certificates and without examination may or may not be the best; your Californian correspondent, however, shows quite plainly that no real test has been made in that State. Assuming him well informed as to the facts, what are we to expect from any system in which faculty examiners and school principals certify that things are when they are not?

Here in Michigan the system of diploma schools has been given its fullest and longest trial. The current calendar of the University shows that 152 schools possess the complete or partial right of admitting their students by certificate; the list includes all the principal schools of Michigan and many of those in surrounding States. Those interested are, I think, agreed as to the efficiency of the system when reference is made to the matters touched upon by your correspondent. There is abundant evidence that the University exercises due caution, and that the schools honorably meet the responsibility placed upon them. There can be no question that, as between an entrance examination fairly conducted and a certificate honestly earned, the fairer test is found in the latter; but, like all systems, the practical working depends altogether upon the character of those who apply it.

For other reasons the whole question is of the greatest interest, and, like all educational

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problems, opens the whole field. It may be permitted me to touch briefly on the chief arguments both for and against the system of admission by certificate.

The chief advantage of the plan is that other elements than knowledge of set topics may have weight in determining a candidate's right to enter college. To say nothing of the facts that an entrance examination is a very partial and very incomplete test, and that passing it proves generally the lucky candidate to be possessed of some mental lumber rather than of some mental power, it is patent that the system of entrance by examination takes no account of individuals. I am not one of those who regard college opportunities as the privilege of any sort of intellectual aristocracy; rather, I am deeply convinced that every boy who faithfully applies himself in his preparatory studies, and with diligence accomplishes according to his abilities, should feel that he has an inalienable right to go to college if he desires so to do. This is a debatable question; but those who feel with me must have a very friendly feeling for a plan of admitting students to college which concerns itself rather with what the boy is, than with what he happens to have.

On the other hand, an equally great difficulty stands on the other side, although the whole entrance system shares in it. The tendency of the diploma system is to make the high school a mere fitting school for college. No school should be that, and the public high school peculiarly should not. The suggestion implied in this last principle shows where the peculiar danger of the diploma system lies. State universities very generally employ this plan of admitting students, and thus the danger is greatest at precisely the point where it ought to be most guarded against. It may be said that no school ought ever to be a fitting school for any other, while every school ought to be fitted to some lower one. Half the young men of this country to-day regard their secondary studies as mere stepping-stones into college arbitrarily selected and arbitrarily placed. Dr. Mendenhall recently emphasized this same idea, and pointed out that secondary courses should be planned as if colleges did not exist. When we begin to plan our curricula from the top down, we follow bad pedagogy and a bad public policy. In this view of the case, the relation between college and school should consist simply in the determination by the one of the character and efficiency of the other.

FREDERICK WHITTON.

DETROIT, January 6, 1897.

SCHOOL AND HOME.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For five or six years I have entertained the idea that mothers and teachers should coöperate directly in educational methods, or that parents should be in closer touch with schools and school work. In other words, I have thought that if more of the home could be taken into the school, and more of the school carried into the home, prevailing educational ideas and methods might be greatly improved, and far-reaching results brought about.

Although various plans for carrying on this work had from time to time suggested themselves to my mind, until recently no definite course of action had been formulated. Finally, however, in September last, I communicated to Miss Mathilde Coffin, Assistant Superintendent of Schools in Detroit, the idea of attempting to interest the mothers of the city in the cause of education, and suggested that, so far as possible, we induce them to organize for this purpose. To this suggestion Miss Coffin, who, by the way, is among the foremost educators of the country, and the one to whom the Detroit educational system is principally due, replied that she was quite ready to begin the work—that for some time she herself had been thinking along the same line. Accordingly we conferred with about a dozen or fifteen women, who at once signified their willingness to join in the movement. After a series of meetings a plan was formulated which was as follows: It was proposed to organize a league in each school district of the city, of which every woman within it, regardless of creed, color, nationality, or environment, should be asked to become a member. It was decided to have the meetings of these leagues held in the school buildings once every month, after the regular school work for the day was over. At each of these meetings, which were to be presided over by a regularly elected President (usually the principal of the school), there were to be free discussions among the mothers and teachers upon topics best suited to aid in the proper development of the child. Although the work of the local leagues was to be determined by the neighborhood needs and peculiarities, each having the largest freedom, still the central Union prepared a syllabus in which an outline of work was laid out for those desiring to use it. In these syllabi, which were printed and distributed among the mothers, were suggested such topics as the following:

Proper food and clothing for children; care of the body, cleanliness, the way to prevent the formation of injurious habits; the rights of children; proper reading in the home; how to teach the children self-control and to have a proper regard for the rights of others; the duties of true citizenship; and various other subjects intended more especially to be taken up by the mothers in the home. The next syllabus was to deal more directly with the child in the school.

In about two months 37 of the 65 school districts were organized, the president and secretary of each becoming ex-officio members of the central Union. In addition to these leagues, which represent probably 4,000 women, a league was also organized in the Detroit Seminary.

Scarcely were these organizations formed when a movement was started to canvass each district for the purpose of enlisting all the mothers in the work. In fact, at every one of these meetings the willing voices of mothers and teachers reëchoed the sentiments of the originators of this movement, namely, that this is the next step in educational methods. I doubt not, if these sixty-five district leagues could be continued and conducted after the original plan, that, in the course of three or four months, the average membership would reach 300 mothers, each and every one of whom would be actively engaged in practical educational work. These 19,000 or 20,000 women would be enlisted in a movement which has not so much to do with books and regularly formulated methods of instruction as with actual experimental processes of child-culture or character-building. Were such a unified plan of education carried out in every city of this country; were mothers and teachers generally enlisted in a movement involving practical principles of ethics, of true citizenship, and a higher standard of living and thinking, the results for good can scarcely be estimated.

Just here the following question suggests itself: Has society reached that stage where such results are desired? A system like the one which I have described presupposes the coöperation of all those who have a voice in regulating or formulating educational methods; especially is it necessary to have the sympathy, aid, and encouragement of those in authority. Unfortunately, however, in Detroit at this time we have not such aid and encouragement. On the contrary, at the very outset it was observed that petty jealousies and a fear of the growing influence of women would make it difficult for the work to continue. In other words, the unified influence of the mothers of the city might lead to a state of society which at the present time is simply not desired. Hence the untiring efforts which have been put forward to break up these leagues and to check this work.

I have no doubt that in other cities the above plan would from the first prove successful. Even in Detroit, although the Educational Union has for the present been obliged to disband, the attention of the entire city has, through the controversy brought about by this movement, been directed towards the inefficiency of our school management and the necessity for placing upon our Board of Education intelligent and broad-minded men. Although in no other town has there been an attempt to organize on so large a scale, still this movement is by no means confined to Detroit. In New York, Buffalo, Chicago, and various other cities the idea among women of enlisting in a far-reaching educational movement is rapidly spreading. Already a national convention of mothers has been called to meet in Washington, D. C., in February, 1897, the object being to discuss and formulate plans to carry on a campaign in the interest of education. The leading periodicals, journals, and magazines are just now dealing largely with topics relative to schools and educational methods. Indeed, from all directions comes the information that the education of children is the leading question of the day. The hope is that every woman in the country will find interest in this movement, and that she will give to it her hearty coöperation and support.

ELIZA BURT GAMBLE,
President of the Detroit Educational Union.

DETROIT, MICH., January 2, 1897.

Notes.

THE second volume of the translation of Dr. Adolph Harnack's 'History of Dogma' is ready for publication by Roberts Bros., Boston, who announce also the 'Life and Speeches of Governor Greenhalge [of Massachusetts],' edited by James E. Nesmith of Lowell.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in press, in their "American History Series," 'The Middle Period,' by Prof. John W. Burgess of Columbia; also, in a new series, "Periods of English Literature," 'The Later Nineteenth Century,' by Prof. George Saintsbury; in the Gadshill Edition of Dickens, 'The Pickwick Papers,' with all the original illustrations by Cruikshank, Seymour, and H. K. Browne, chiefly from unused duplicate plates in the possession of Chapman & Hall, the London publishers of this edition; and 'Contemporary Theology and Theism,' by Prof. R. M. Wenley of the University of Michigan.

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Harper & Brothers will soon issue 'Literary Landmarks of Rome' and of Florence, by Laurence Hutton.

'Geography of the Middle Ages,' by C. Raymond Beazley, is to be issued by Macmillan Co.

The February issue of J. M. Dent & Co.'s "Temple Classics," under the general editorship of Mr. Israel Gollancz, will comprise the first volume of an entirely new edition of Florio's Montaigne, to be completed in six volumes, which will appear at intervals during the present year. The immediate editor is Mr. A. R. Waller, who, besides supervising the text, contributes a glossary and brief notes to each volume.

Henry Holt & Co. announce Gavard's 'A Diplomat in London (1871-72)'; and 'Telepathy and the Subliminal Self,' by Dr. R. Osgood Mason.

The *Book-buyer* states that Mrs. James T. Fields will compose for Houghton, Mifflin & Co. the new Life of Mrs. Stowe, and that Joel Chandler Harris will give them a sequel to his 'Story of Aaron.'

Another work from a Southern hand, 'Diomed: An Autobiography of a Dog,' by John Sergeant Wise, son of the late Gov. Henry A. Wise of Virginia, will be brought out by Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston.

Stone & Kimball have in press 'Mlle. Blanche,' by John D. Barry; 'Grip,' by John Strange Winter; 'Ziska,' by Marie Corelli; and "John Gabriel Borkman," Ibsen's new play.

Mr. Francis Darwin makes the interesting announcement that he is preparing a supplementary volume of his father's letters. These will comprise many of purely scientific interest which could not be used in the 'Life and Letters,' together with some fresh material that has come to his hands. He appeals also to correspondents of Charles Darwin's, who may still possess unused letters of the great naturalist, to allow him to make copies of them for the projected new series.

Charles Scribner's Sons have brought out Archibald Forbes's history of 'The Black Watch,' the famous British Regiment also known as the Royal Highlanders. Beginning as a local force to keep the peace in the Scotch Highlands in the early part of the last century, when the adherents of the Stuart Pretender were preparing for the uprising which came in '45, it was soon incorporated into the regular army and showed its brilliant valor in every quarter of the globe. Egypt, Salamanca, Vittoria, Waterloo, Sebastopol, Lucknow are among the "honors" inscribed on the regimental colors. The barest outline of its career is a romance of soldierly adventure, and Forbes has known how to make attractive even the brief chronicles of its battles and its voyages.

Few more worthless specimens of book-making come before us than Mr. John Ashton's 'The Devil in Britain and America' (Scribners). The author has merely extracted from various works of antiquarian research such accounts of demoniacal possession and witchcraft as have suited his fancy, and set them down without order or reason, adding a number of coarse cuts remarkable chiefly for their insignificance. So far as this country is concerned, he has had the good judgment to rely principally on Mr. Upham's well-known work, 'Salem Witchcraft.' An appendix contains the titles of many books on witchcraft and kindred superstitions.

We cannot speak much more favorably of Mrs. Alice Morse Earle's 'Curious Punishments of Bygone Days,' although it is daintily printed with much elegant affectation of the archaic (Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.). Mrs. Earle offers a sort of half-apology for her subject in saying that, although it is not pleasant, yet obsolete punishments have interest and dignity from their antiquity, and their history becomes endurable because they have a past only and no future. It is doubtful if descriptions of the bilboes and the ducking-stool, the stocks, the pillory, and the whipping-post, and their applications, give ordinary readers correct views of the criminal jurisprudence of our ancestors; nor is it certain that this generation requires to "gain from acts of the past a delight in the present days of virtue, wisdom, and the humanities," when we consider the outrageous prison legislation of the State of New York. But we must give Mrs. Earle's work the credit of being in great part the result of original investigation.

Although the report of the First International Coöperative Congress, which was held in London in 1895, is somewhat belated in its appearance (London: P. S. King & Son), it contains a good deal of permanently valuable matter. This is to be found especially in the reports from foreign countries, even Spain and Servia furnishing long lists of coöperative enterprises. The case of Servia is especially interesting as showing how the primitive customs of collective ownership which still prevail among the Slav races, may be used as a basis for modern forms of partnership. Nothing, however, is more encouraging than the success of coöperative methods among the Irish dairymen; success in a small way hitherto, but which may be significant of revolutionary industrial changes. In Germany we have the melancholy spectacle of "The State" thrusting itself as a patron and director upon the voluntary associations formed for mutual aid by its subjects—associations which prospered under the frown of the Government, but which are now suffering from its officious favors.

One can understand why there may be, as there has been, an American Text-Book of the Practice of Medicine, as there might be an American Practice of Law, because climatic and sociological conditions differentiate American life in some degree from that of other countries. But just why, in the interest of pure science, there should be an 'American Text-Book of Physiology' is a puzzle. Nevertheless, there is. It is edited by Wm. H. Howell, Ph.D., M.D. (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders), and is the product of collaboration by a number of American teachers. True, most of the numerous citations as to the recent progress of this science are foreign, and the only distinct omission we have observed that is important is reference to the investigations of Bergey, under the direction of Billings and Mitchell, upon the effect of rebreathing expired air, published by the Smithsonian about a year ago. But no editor is infallible. The presumed and probably the actual advantage of this method of constructing a class-book is the discussion of the same general subject from several points of view. Incidentally reflected light as well as that which is direct is cast upon it from the different outlooks of the confederated writers. This great volume, intended for pupils, is also useful for graduates who have not ceased from study; but carefully and intelligently as it is constructed, its thousand large octavo pages still leave unsettled some of the secrets of that organism which is so fearfully and wonderfully made.

The Hakluyt Society has published for its ninety-fifth volume the first part of Azurara's 'Chronicle of the Discovery and Conquest of Guinea.' The manuscript original was discovered in the Paris National Library in 1837, and is now first given in an English translation in commemoration of the fifth centenary of the birth of Prince Henry the Navigator, the promoter of the voyages narrated. These voyages, though nominally for discovery, were in reality little else than expeditions to procure slaves, and the success of a voyage was measured by the number of captives brought to Portugal. Though the chronicler is zealous in extolling the pious motives of the Prince in bringing these heathen under Christian influences, he is at times filled with a sense of the infinite pity of it. In a graphic description of the division of some slaves by the Prince among his friends, he says: "What heart could be so hard as not to be pierced with piteous feeling to see that company? For some kept their heads low and their faces bathed in tears, looking one upon another; others stood groaning very dolorously, looking up to the height of heaven, fixing their eyes upon it, crying out loudly, as if asking help of the Father of Nature; others struck their faces with the palms of their hands, throwing themselves at full length upon the ground; others made their lamentations in the manner of a dirge, after the custom of their country." The work of translating and editing has been done by Messrs. C. R. Beazley and E. Prestage, who have also added an account of the life and writings of Azurara. As an illustration of the ideas prevalent at that time regarding the geography of Africa, four maps are reproduced, of dates ranging from 1351 to 1436.

'Cow-boy,' by Auzias-Turenne (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's), is a weak and insipid production, a sort of dime novel *ad usum Gallorum;* but one may fairly doubt whether any reader, native or foreign, will voluntarily proceed beyond the first page.

'Un Divorce,' by Th. Bentzon, a pseudonym that no longer conceals the identity of the writer, is the early work of Mme. Blanc. It is a pity, one cannot help thinking, to bring out, even in the case of great writers, their youthful works, or, at least, their first attempts at literature. In the case of writers of lesser rank (and it is not doing Mme. Blanc injustice to reckon her among these), there is no reason for it. The book, published by the above firm, is by no means up to the level of the author's later productions. Subject and treatment are alike commonplace, and the romanesque tone of the story does not suffice to make it interesting.

Very different is 'Idylle Nuptiale,' by Mme. Caro, from the same publishers. This is a well-written work, with interest enough in it to satisfy the average novel-reader and even the critical reader. Although the story begins suspiciously like the novels of the late G. P. R. James, it does not develop in the same fashion. Reality, as we understand it nowadays, since Flaubert and his disciples taught us, is pretty closely reproduced by Mme. Caro. There is an ample amount of suffering provided for the various characters, and a fair amount of verisimilitude for the reader. The characters themselves are well wrought out; they recall other and greater ones, but that is no fault—we can stand a remembrance of Grandet, in M. de Galesnes, and a vaguer one of Polyeucte, the *amant incompris*, in Gilbert Arradon. The common sense and cleanliness of the story are advantages not

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always met with in the contemporary French novel.

A report on the "Philosophical Seminaries and the Present Condition of Philosophical Studies at the Universities of Berlin and Leipzig," by M. Élie Halévy, in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for December, 1896, treats but briefly of the work of Profs. Stumpf, Dilthey, Paulsen, and Simmel, of Berlin, and Wundt, Heinze, Barth, Wolff, and Volkelt, of Leipzig. None of these is occupied with philosophy, taking the word in its full meaning—a symptom of the discredit into which philosophical, *i.e.*, metaphysical, studies have fallen in Germany ("Povera e nuda vai, Filosofia)." To this latter phenomenon, which has been discussed ere now by German as well as French scholars, the writer devotes the greater portion of his article. Its beginning dates back to the year 1816, when philology gained the ascendancy over philosophy in consequence of the new programme for the gymnasia. Aside from this lack of preparatory training, it is claimed, the prevailing idea that teaching philosophy in its widest sense—metaphysical theories—would be a violation of academical courtesy, inasmuch as metaphysics is a matter of private concern, has contributed to the decline of philosophy as a university study. This statement is attributed to E. von Hartmann. There are several points of interest in the article which we must refrain from touching upon.

In 1891 Jules Simon published a paper in the *Temps* on the population of France from a military point of view, in which he said: "We boast that we can send five million soldiers into the field. But how will it be in twenty years? We are losing a battle every year." The patriotic anxiety for the future of his country, so tersely expressed by the venerable French statesman, is fully justified by the latest tables of statistics, according to which the present population of France is 38,228,962, showing an increase of only 133,800 during the past five years. The annual increase from 1881 to 1886 was 113,000, from 1886 to 1891, 40,000, and from 1891 to 1896 only 26,760. This increase, small as it is, is due entirely to the growth of Paris and a few industrial cities in the provinces. In the agricultural districts there has been a considerable diminution of the population. But even in Paris the increase has been only 85,000 during the past five years, whereas in Berlin it has been 240,000 during the same period. In France the population has increased, in round numbers, from thirty six millions in 1872 to thirty-eight millions in 1896, and in Germany during the same time from forty-one to fifty-two millions; and this, too, notwithstanding the much larger emigration of Germans than of Frenchmen to foreign countries. During the past five years the population in the German Empire has increased 2,817,000; and in France, as already stated, only 133,800. At this rate Germany will have in 1910 a population of sixty and France a population of forty millions.

"Greater New York" is described in the last number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* by the editor, Dr. Supan. The area and estimated number of inhabitants in 1898 are compared with those of London, Paris, and Berlin. The article is accompanied by a map giving the city and the country within a radius of 30 kilometres of the City Hall. In the same number are to be found the scientific results, with a map and meteorological observations, of the recent expedition of Prince Comanesti in Somaliland, and a paper upon the methods by which the geographical positions of places can be determined without the aid of astronomical instruments. Announcement is made that the subject of the annual prize of 25,000 francs, given by the King of Belgium for the most successful solution of some scientific problem, is: the conditions essential for the preservation of the health of Europeans in equatorial Africa, particularly in the Congo Basin.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for December opens with a curious collection of nearly two hundred and fifty Gaelic place-names found in a single parish in Scotland. This is followed by a valuable summary of observations on bird migration in the British Isles, its geographical and meteorological aspects, by Mr. W. Eagle Clarke. There is also a description of the country of the Yakuts, taken from a recently published Russian work.

One of the most potent foreign influences exerted upon the intellectual and moral life of India is shown by a report of a year's work of the Christian Literature Society for that country. During the year, 149 new books and 89 new editions of books previously issued were published in thirteen different languages, including Persian. Most of the new editions and a few of the new works were school-books; the others were stories, biographies, scientific and religious books; fifty-two were treatises upon Hindu teaching and customs, social questions and duties. Of all these works more than one million copies were issued in the year, besides 130,500 copies of six vernacular periodicals. In addition to this work, the Society maintains a training institution for native teachers and 201 vernacular schools.

Mr. John Gifford now edits from Princeton, N. J., his monthly *Forester*, a pioneer in its class, with obvious claims for support in every part of the Union. It is the official organ of the New Jersey Forestry Association and is published at seventy-five cents a year. A characteristic view of the remorseless sand-dunes on the southern New Jersey coast is a frontispiece of the present number, which gives evidence of Mr. Gifford's late tour abroad.

By way of celebrating the hundredth anniversary of the building of that long-lived ship, if not longest-lived of ships still afloat, the *Constitution*, or "Old Ironsides," A. W. Elson & Co., Boston, have produced a large photogravure copy of Marshall Johnson, jr.'s painting of this frigate under full sail. The remarque is, we believe, a portrait of her second commander, Commodore Bainbridge. As Boston, in the person of Dr. Holmes, had a potent hand in preventing this historic war-vessel from being broken up years ago, it is fitting that a memorial like this plate should proceed from that city.

—An article which gives especial value to the January *Scribner's* is "Thackeray's Haunts and Homes," illustrated by sketches "worked out *in situ*," by Eyre Crowe. Five successive London homes exhibit the rising tide of Thackeray's literary success, and afford characteristic glimpses of the domestic architecture of the great city, while a familiar friendship, of early date and long continuance, supplies Mr. Crowe's pen with material as acceptable as that his pencil has found in scattered habitations on two sides of the Channel. A second article which has the merit of conveying distinct personal impressions—in this case of recent date and tinged with pity and indignation—is Yvan Troshine's "Bystander's Notes of a Massacre"—that of the Armenians in Constantinople in the closing days of August last. There is no war-cry here, however, to work author and attitude into favor with the tender-hearted and compassionate. The thorough organization, the business accuracy brought to a fine point, the application of talent and industry, composing the hidden and noiseless wheels upon which revolves in orderly fashion that apparent modern Bedlam, "The Department Store," are made clear to the comprehension of the multitude in an interesting illustrated description by Samuel Hopkins Adams. At the same time, there has not been overlooked, in considering the advantages of the great shops, a certain loss which the buying public suffers from the gradual disappearance of the retail dealer especially educated in his own line, and having a pride in his business to give it a distinction beyond that of mere trading. The store book-department furnishes the best illustration of this loss of a possible educational influence for the shopper.

—Time was when good Americans when they died went to Paris. Nowadays they ascend into English society, of which the final pinnacles are drawing-rooms, house-parties, and "the Marlborough House set." For this reason there is a chance that G. W. Smalley's article on "English Society" in this month's *Harper's* may do a good turn practically to departing or departed fellow-countrymen, by dropping the needful word to the wise in regard to nice points of behavior. Among the mere lookers-on in Vienna who find a spice in the ripened observations of a social philosopher, this paper will be sure to meet with consideration, notwithstanding the faint suspicion of snobbishness which it seems to be next to impossible for the writer who has nothing damaging or damnatory to say of social functions to avoid. But Mr. Smalley's article comes off with the merest possible suspicion, and preserves so well an upright poise on slippery ground that the most sensitive patriot might be trusted to read it and not feel moved to double up his fists at an effete monarchy. Most conspicuously clever of the remaining completed articles is a lively little comedy of lies, "Indian Giver." Here Mr. Howells, who is a past master of this side of feminine psychology, shows once more how witty a thing it is for a pretty woman to prevaricate recklessly, and, having precipitated a series of exciting *contretemps* by her prevarications, at last, like an early friend, the man in the bramble-bush, to retrieve herself by still more reckless prevarication.

—A suggestion is tentatively thrown out in the current *Atlantic*, in the article on "Park-Making as a National Art," by Mary Caroline Robbins, that there may yet be seen a park-way from the Atlantic to the Pacific, "leading from one beautiful pleasure-ground to another, and passing through great tracts of woodland patrolled by Government foresters." Far as we are from this, Mrs. Robbins is able to point to enough that has been begun in this country, by means of grants, gifts and purchases, to justify liberal hopes for the future. As a matter of fact, however, we must still look for achievement to the cities of Great Britain, and in particular to London, where an American authority finds there are already 209 football spaces in use. Joseph Edgar Chamberlin's "Memorials of American Authors" is written in a spirit of a praiseworthy aspiration for a country through which, without finding castles and

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cathedrals, a Ruskin of the future may still travel and not feel his vital spirits wither; but the present showing which this paper is able to make, both as to quantity and quality of existing memorials, is discouragingly meagre. More forcible in thought and expression than anything else in this number is W. P. Trent's "Dominant Forces in Southern Life."

—Mr. Gilder's graceful poem in the *Century*, "The Parthenon by Moonlight," is coupled with a paper written with exceptionally intimate knowledge of what it deals with, by D. Bikélas, on "Public Spirit in Modern Athens." The wonder of this paper is the command of English displayed by a Greek, and not its least recommendation is the modesty of its statement and the common sense with which it invests the discussion of its subject. In Julian Hawthorne's "Summer at Christmas-Tide" it is necessary to pardon the raptures of a traveller new to the fascination of the coloring and climate of Jamaica, but this is readily done in view of the combined attractiveness of his theme and of his manner of writing about it. John Dutton Wright's admirably illustrated article on "Speech and Speech-Reading for the Deaf" marks a milestone in the progress of human intelligence and care for the afflicted. In considering the remarkable net result that there are to-day more than 2,500 deaf children in this country who "are taught as wholly by means of speech as the children of our public schools," no one should overlook the patience and genius of the teachers who have devoted themselves to this cause. Hamlin Garland's short story, "A Girl of Modern Tyre," is written in the vernacular which makes speech offensive to ears that are fortunate enough not to be accustomed to it, and which is no more attractive on the printed page than it is in the utterance. It may serve, moreover, as a warning against the excessive flatness into which indiscriminate realism may finally lead a story-teller.

—M. Léon Marillier, of the École Pratique des Hautes Études, has prefixed to his recently published translation of Mr. Andrew Lang's 'Myth, Ritual, and Religion' a noteworthy Introduction. The anthropological school, having driven others from the field, is now, he maintains, called upon for positive and constructive work in the history of religion. To account for the uniformity of savage myths and rites, he falls back upon something scarcely distinguishable from innate ideas. Why, he asks, are certain ideas savage and primitive? Why do primitive traditions too widely scattered to have a common derivation agree in reflecting identical conceptions and modes of feeling? What accounts for the startling monotony of all accounts of ultimate causes given by primitive peoples? There are certain traits inherent in the intellectual and emotional conformation of the primitive mind. There is, according to M. Marillier, a common religion belonging to human-kind, and it is based upon primitive modes of consciousness. Accordingly, the eighteenth century was not wrong in occupying itself with the "human mind," with an abstract man underlying all those picturesque local and individual traits that have so exclusively preoccupied the modern historical school. Yet M. Marillier does not allow of religion, what some assert of language, that it must necessarily be the involuntary and anonymous product of popular consciousness. A rôle remains for great religious innovators, and here again he is in agreement with the eighteenth century, but with a difference all in favor of recognizing as sincere many whom Voltaire and Volney called charlatans.

—M. Marillier contrasts religion and mythology, much as Robertson Smith has done, and agrees with Comte in making out theology and metaphysics to be later phases of thought, developed to cover the original ground of mythology. Comte forgot that all three phases might coexist, and he ignored religion as a mode of emotionalism, the impulse to worship, to seek union with the divine principle. Here, again, we are not far from the innate idea of God. This impulse towards worship, which M. Marillier regards as a mode of sensibility, is, according to him, the one thing in man's nature—whether he be primitive or civilized man—that requires mythology and ritual for its expression and satisfaction. Savage myths, identical the world over, were invented to satisfy this impulse, when with it were associated all the problems of the universe as presented to primitive man. For the savage, mythology was theology, metaphysics, science, and religion, all in one; but it had nothing to do with morality. This last point is rather startling, as some would say that savage morality centred in "taboos," which had a close connection with primitive myths and primitive rites. At all events, M. Marillier outlines the history of mythology as one of continuous differentiation. First, it parted company with theology, and took refuge from metaphysics and science in a close association with ethics. This last association has in these latter days been dissolved, our writer affirms, but the old myths survive. Indeed, they persist in men's minds, not, as of yore, because they answer our questions of doubt concerning the world and ourselves, but because, transformed, as they now are, into symbols, they are the indispensable word-counters required for our own interpretation to our own selves of our own religious emotions.

—The annual public celebration of the Higher Courses for Women, connected with the University of St. Petersburg, took place on December 13, and the reports from all departments showed that the cause of higher education is constantly making progress in Russia. Two new chairs have been established during the past year, viz., zoölogy and the history of pedagogy. At the beginning of the year there were 695 regular and outside students: in the historic-philological department, 506 students, and 56 outside attendants; in the physico-mathematical department, 122 students and 11 outsiders. 101 dropped out, for various reasons, and only 80 graduated in both departments. The applications for entrance for the current year were made in August and September last, and far exceeded the available vacancies, as has regularly been the case every year; 550 applied, but only 226 could be received, and most of these were students who had finished the courses in the middle-class educational institutions with the gold or silver medal, and with the certificate allowing them to give private lessons. It was necessary to refuse the rest, although many of them came from distant parts of the country, Eastern Siberia, Bulgaria, and so forth. At the present time there are 673 students and 68 outsiders, of which number 596 are in the historic-philological department, 101 in the mathematical, and 44 in the chemical. The students of the different departments made excursions that they might study on the spot distant historical monuments; and to places in Finland which offered opportunity for original investigation of physical subjects. The library of the Courses contains 14,758 volumes, under 6,262 heads. In order to facilitate the study of astronomy, the guardians suggested that a small revolving observatory be built, and instruments for making observations be bought, and such an observatory is nearly completed. The Courses also possess the nucleus of a Museum of Fine Arts, in the form of several hundred photographs from architectural subjects and from sculptures, chiefly Italian. The financial part of the report announces that the receipts for the year were 105,985 rubles (about one-half that sum in dollars), of which 54,152 rubles was expended on the educational part, and 33,275 on the support of the students who live in the three houses maintained by the Courses, and in which all women who cannot reside with their parents or relatives are compelled to live. Of such women there are now 168. The limitations of these dormitories are the chief cause of disappointment in candidates from distant places. That is gradually being remedied since the experiment, begun with one house a few years ago, proved so successful with its very moderate charges for comfort and the indispensable protection afforded. At the end of this annual commencement the graduates received their diplomas.

MAHAFFY'S PTOLEMIES.

The Empire of the Ptolemies. By J. P. Mahaffy. Macmillan Co.

PAUSANIAS, writing in the second century of our era, gives as a reason for his brief digression on the Ptolemies that the popular report of them had vanished, and that the contemporary records of their reign were neglected. He could write this only two centuries after the death of the famous Cleopatra. It is no wonder, therefore, that our sources are now meagre and fragmentary. The episodes of Polybius, of Diodorus, of Plutarch and Pausanias must be supplemented with the inscriptions and the fragments of papyri which modern discovery is constantly contributing; and in this flux of isolated facts and documents it is hard to find beginning or end. Mr. Mahaffy does not profess to find an end; yet his treatise must certainly hold the field for a long time, so far as the English language is concerned. He has pieced out his mosaic with great special learning and pains, and has added many new touches to the picture. A good instance of these recent additions to our knowledge, which are confirmed by the evidence of the latest papyri, is, that we now reckon a Ptolemy VI. (Eupator) and a Ptolemy VIII. (Philopator Neos), who were divined but hardly proved by the acute and learned Lepsius.

Mr. Mahaffy begins his work with the conquest of Alexander, which did in fact open a new era for Egypt and its history. He points out the combination of good fortune and good judgment with which the great conqueror propitiated and won over to a certain extent the stubborn and disaffected element in Egyptian society. The Persians, beginning with Cambyses, had outraged the Egyptian priesthood, a powerful and ambitious body, and had incurred their unceasing enmity; Alexander, on the contrary, won their support and their sentimental influence with the populace, just as he had won, by judicious concessions, the priesthood at Jerusalem and the important services of the migratory and commercial Jews. Ptolemy Soter inherited the outlines of Alexander's policy in Egypt, as he had managed to secure for the nascent Alexandria the prestige and sanctity of retaining

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in the Sema those magic relics in their golden sarcophagus for the possession of which Perdiccas had disputed. He contributed magnificently to the burial of Apis, which Cambyses had insulted and desecrated; he granted lands to the domain of the gods Pe and Tep; he built temples at Edfu, at Esneh, and at Denderah, so purely Egyptian in their symbols and architecture that they were long supposed to belong to the older Pharaonic dynasties. By such concessions he gained the active support of the national hierarchy, and their vast influence over the fellahs, whose lot, then as now, was unceasing labor under the kurbash of the tax-gatherer. He even seems to have invented, with the aid of Greek and Egyptian priests, a new guardian deity for his new capital—a mongrel fusion of Sarapis with the Greek Hades, which suited well the mixed elements of that growing population.

In the government of the city, which became the Paris of the Hellenistic world, this ruler made a novel departure from the conceptions of Alexander and from the Greek ideas of polity. It was not self-governing, according to the Greek idea of the *polis*. Its citizens had, indeed, certain exemptions and privileges; but they remained subject, under military control, to a centralized empire which Ptolemy had the original genius to devise and establish. His statesmanship, like that of the other Diadochi, was Machiavellian, but tempered and prospered by a combination of prudence, moderation, courtesy, and bonhomie, which was purely personal and individual. To this remarkable group of qualities his successors owed the stability of the empire. The debt which the modern world owes him is of a different kind, and far more important. With the aid and counsel of Demetrius of Phaleron, he founded the Museum, that earliest university of learning, and made a beginning of the famous library. To his patronage we owe the corps of bookworms and critics and grammarians who preserved for us the Greek classics; to him, probably, more than to his son Philadelphus, we are indebted for the names and the works of Theocritus and Aratus, of Euclid and Herophilus.

The city itself was the earliest great and gay capital of the civilized world—the model of Rome in after times, replete with luxury and magnificence, with architectural adornment and artistic beauty. Mr. Mahaffy maintains, and we must agree with him, that the treasures of art collected in that wealthy capital were second only to those of Athens and its Acropolis. In later days, its architecture and painting set the fashions to Rome and Pompeii and Herculaneum. A unique sample of the best art of that period has come down to us in the magnificent polychrome sarcophagus now preserved in the new museum of Constantinople. It is the greatest of pities that we must apparently renounce the hope of recovering such treasures. If not plundered and carried away, they lie buried ten feet below the present water-level, in consequence of a general subsidence of the soil which was revealed by the recent excavations undertaken for the Hellenic Society.

We have spoken of Alexandria as a sort of Paris, visited for its splendid fêtes by the rustic world of Greece and the Ægean islands, such as those lively ladies whose chatter Theocritus immortalized in his fifteenth idyl. It bore a curious resemblance to the modern Paris in another respect. The Alexandrian mob was as capricious, as brutal in its outbreaks, as powerful in swaying the destinies of the Empire, as the supporters of the Commune. The pétroleuses were not more outrageous than the troop of young girls who, Polybius informs us, tore in pieces the wife and infant child of Philammon.

The policy of centralization which was invented by the first Ptolemy was continued by his son Philadelphus. The Revenue Papyrus of the twenty-seventh year of his reign, discovered by Mr. Petrie, contains the most minute regulations as to the taxing of vineyards and wine and oils and fish. The prices, the number of acres to be cultivated, the number of retailers, were all fixed by the State; the seed was distributed by the State sixty days before the harvest. The minute detail of these regulations, borrowed from the Pharaohs, reminds us of that crushing system of restriction which prevailed in the Byzantine Empire and is disclosed in the "Book of the Prefect," the municipal code of Leo, "the Wise." There were tithes and twentieths and sixths—there was a salt-tax, a police-tax, a dyke-tax, an orphan-tax. Inheritance-tax, apparently, there was none; but this might well be omitted, since every field and every plant was catalogued and assessed during a man's lifetime. There was a swarm of officials and a deal of red tape under this complicated bureaucracy; but there were no outrages or horrors of the type which introduced the French Revolution. The papyri prove that, in the main, justice was done by the crown magistrates, and life and property were secure. The State regulations did not preclude a considerable measure of freedom in commerce, in the transfer of property, and in the provisions of wills. The Grenfell papyri, published since Mr. Mahaffy's book was printed, give remarkable confirmation of this fact. Within our own day, under the Khedive Ismail, the fellahs were more oppressed than were the subjects of the Lagidæ or the Seleucidæ.

Early in his reign the second Ptolemy took the extraordinary step of marrying his own sister, Arsinoe, called from that fact Philadelphus, "the lover of her brother." This incest offended Greek sentiment, but was entirely in accord with Egyptian ideas and with the Oriental expressions of the Song of Songs, which was probably composed in the Alexandrian epoch. Droysen ascribes the choice to motives of policy; Mr. Mahaffy assumes also more potent influences. It is quite likely that Ptolemy was in love with his sister. Arsinoe was ambitious, she was strongly intellectual, and probably a woman of great personal charm. "She wanted only another Plutarch and a Roman lover to make her another Cleopatra." She won great popularity, and, before her death, had received the tribute of deification in all the Egyptian temples. This deification was no barren honor. The Revenue Papyrus lets us into the secret of what it really meant. It contains a royal order by which the tithes (or rather the sixths) due to the temples were made over to the patron goddess, Arsinoe Philadelphus. In compensation for this ingenious form of confiscation some moderate allowances were made to the priesthood.

The latest successor of Arsinoe was the Cleopatra of Plutarch and of Shakspere, no gypsy "with Phœbus' amorous pinches black," but heir of the purest Macedonian blood and features—heir, apparently, of all its force and graces, without diminution or deterioration; yet four of her direct ancestors had married full sisters. Many years ago Mr. G. H. Lewes cited this remarkable woman as a disproof of the common belief that intermarriage of near relations necessarily produces physical degeneration. The Arsinoes and the Cleopatras were, in general, stronger than their husbands intellectually, but quite as unscrupulous, as destitute of the ordinary feeling and decencies of humanity. It is not easy to guess what flesh and blood these women were made of who were ready to sacrifice everything to ambition, to whom a Manon Lescaut might be a type of modesty—one of whom, it is asserted, lived and bore children to a husband who was at once her own brother, the murderer of her son, and the husband of her daughter. The myth of Œdipus hardly embraced such a catalogue of monstrosities. Mr. Mahaffy speaks of the mimes of Herondas as probably overdrawn in their realism—overdrawn *à la* Zola. That may possibly be. But the tone of the mimes strikes us as exactly fitting the court of the Ptolemies. The high moralities which Pindar administered to his princely patrons have disappeared from this literature. By Theocritus such matters are gracefully ignored; for Herondas they hardly exist. He sketches his rather sordid types with undeniable art, but with a hard and cynical humor which is truly Mephistophelian. This Mephistophelian cynicism is the keynote to the court of the Ptolemies.

It would be a great mistake, however, to believe all that we are told of these sovereigns, or to imagine that the country suffered in proportion to their scandalous reputation. The evidence of the papyri proves this to a demonstration. The historians have served up the name of Ptolemy Physkon (Euergetes II.) with a *sauce piquante* of incredible crimes and cruelties, among which is the murder and mutilation of his own son as well as his sister's. Yet this "Tamburlaine" reigned nearly thirty years over a fairly prosperous people, and contributed a curious emendation to the 'Odyssey.' There is, in fact, neither rhyme nor reason in the chapter of horrors that is narrated of him; the contemporary documents do not bear them out, and Mr. Mahaffy does not accept them. He believes, with great probability, that they were partly invented by the Jews and Greeks whom Euergetes banished in pursuing a national or Egyptianizing policy, and who took this literary revenge upon his memory. As to the character of his government, we have the remarkable testimony of the Turin papyrus, which records, in nine columns, the evidence and the decision *in re* Hermias vs. the Choachytæ, a litigation over a piece of real estate in the fifty-third year of Physkon's life. The evidence goes back for eighty-eight years—the public records for that period are cited; "the arguments and the decision are such as would now be used in an English court." The decision, we may add, was rendered within a month of the hearing. A single case of this kind goes far to countervail the verdict even of Strabo and Polybius.

The steady growth of an Egyptianizing policy can be traced in the ample citations which Mr. Mahaffy makes from papyri and inscriptions, a feature most welcome to the scholarly reader who is not a specialist. Chief of these are the decree of Canopus under Ptolemy III. (238 B.C.), and the decree of Memphis in the Rosetta Stone (196 B.C.). Every one has heard of the Rosetta Stone and its relation to Champollion's discovery. Many have seen it in the British Museum; very few know what it is all about. Mr. Mahaffy here gives the Greek text in full with annotations, in order to show the relations of the Government to the priests and the native population. Like the decree

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of Canopus, it contains a complimentary vote of the Egyptian priests to the reigning King, recording certain conquests and public works, acknowledging certain favors received and conferring certain honors. But the language of the later decree reveals the progress which the stubborn Egyptian element had made in conquering its conquerors. It is thoroughly Egyptian in its long-winded titles and phrases and whimsical formulas of flattery.

BANKS'S JOURNAL.

Journal of the Right Hon. Sir Joseph Banks, Bart., K.B., P.R.S. Edited by Sir Joseph D. Hooker. Macmillan Co. 1896.

It is probable that many of our readers are already acquainted with parts of this journal, although they may not be aware of the fact. Those who have perused the account of Capt. James Cook's voyage to the South Seas in the ship *Endeavour* remember how much of the interest was plainly due to the vivid descriptions of natural scenery, of the natives and their ways, and of the plants. A good measure of this interest came, not from what Cook himself wrote, although Cook's style is graphic and full of vigor, but from material which his editor appropriated, under authority, from the journals of Cook's scientific companions. This material was inextricably blended with Cook's own words and with the editor's fine writing.

This blending of incongruous matters happened in the following way. On Cook's return, his journals, together with those of his scientific associates, Banks and Solander, were intrusted to Dr. Hawkesworth for publication. A note in Prior's Life of Malone says: "Hawkesworth, the writer, was introduced by Garrick to Lord Sandwich, who, thinking to put a few hundred pounds into his pocket, appointed him to revise and publish Cook's voyages. He scarcely did anything to the MS., yet sold it to Cadell and Strahan, the printer and bookseller, for £6,000. . . ." But Hawkesworth, instead of doing scarcely anything, as this note would lead us to believe, did really too much; he brought rather too much of his own heaviness into the narrative, and, after the common fashion of that day, took here a little and there a little of just what served him best, without providing the student of his pages any sufficient data for determining exactly what was Cook, what was Banks or Solander, and what was Hawkesworth. With the means now at command, it is possible to ascertain at least what were the respective contributions of Cook and Banks. Cook's Journal, freed from extraneous matter, was carefully edited, in 1893, by Capt. W. J. L. Wharton, R.N., Hydrographer to the Admiralty, and now we have before us the Journal which was kept by Banks.

This has likewise received careful editing, also at the hands of competent authority. Captain Wharton was admirably fitted to consider Cook's Journal from the point of view of modern navigation and of hydrography; Sir Joseph Hooker, the most eminent living botanist, an all-around naturalist, interested in everything which can fall under the eye of a scientific traveller, and familiar with much of the ground visited by Banks, is the one to whom the task of editing this Journal would naturally be committed by common consent of the learned world. But there is an added felicity in Sir Joseph's acceptance of this task in the fact that it is to one of his relatives that we are indebted for the preservation of the Journal itself. Sir Joseph states in the preface that:

"On Sir J. Banks's death without issue in 1820, his property and effects passed to the Hugessen [his wife's] family, with the exception of the library, herbarium, and the lease of the house in Soho Square. These were left to his librarian, the late eminent botanist Robert Brown, F.R.S., with the proviso that after that gentleman's death the library and herbarium were to go to the British Museum. Banks's papers and correspondence, including the Journal of the voyage of the *Endeavour*, were then placed by the trustees in Mr. Brown's hands, with the object of his writing a Life of Banks, which he had agreed to do. Age and infirmities, however, interfered with his prosecution of this work, and at his suggestion the materials were transferred with the same object to my maternal grandfather, Dawson Turner, F.R.S., an eminent botanist and antiquarian, who had been a friend of Banks. Mr. Turner at once had the whole faithfully transcribed, but for which precaution the Journal would as a whole have been irretrievably lost."

It appears that when the manuscripts had been copied, they were placed, after one or two transfers, in the manuscript department of the British Museum. Mr. Carruthers, F.R.S., late keeper of the botanical collections at the British Museum, says, in a letter to Sir Joseph Hooker, dated July 14, 1893:

"The story of the originals, after I parted with them, is a distressing one. Some seven or eight years ago Lord Brabourne claimed the letters as his property. Mr. Maunde Thompson remonstrated, and told him that they were to remain in the Museum till the death of Lady Knatchbull, and then they were to become the property of the trustees. Lord Brabourne would not accept this view, but claimed them as his own, and carried off the box and its contents. They were afterwards offered to the Museum for sale, but the price offered by the keeper of the manuscripts was not satisfactory, and the whole collection was broken up into lots, 207, and sold by auction at Sotheby's on 14th April, 1886. The Journal of Cook's voyage was lot 176, and was described in the catalogue as 'Banks's (Sir Joseph) Journal of a Voyage to the Sandwich Islands and New Zealand, from March, 1769, to July, 1771, in the autograph of Banks.' It was purchased by an autograph dealer, John Waller, for £7:2:6. . . . I have since ascertained that the Journal came into the possession of J. Henniker Heaton, Esq., M. P., who informs me that he disposed of it to a gentleman in Sydney, N. S. W. The result is that the Journal and letters transcribed for Dawson Turner, and now here, are the only ones available."

Thus, by the happiest chance, the editing of an authentic transcript falls to the grandson of the thoughtful man whose foresight saved the Journal to science.

The Journal is well worth saving. It is the graphic account of daily adventures and explorations by a naturalist who engaged with his whole might in his work. His companion, Daniel Carl Solander, a Swede and a pupil of Linnæus, entered heartily into all the plans of Cook and Banks, and, after his return, became the secretary and librarian of Banks. The voyage carried these three well-equipped explorers first to Madeira and thence to Rio de Janeiro, at which port the authorities gave them much trouble. The Viceroy was suspicious that the Whitby-built bark of three hundred and seventy tons was not really a king's ship of war, but a smuggler, and the crew was forbidden to land. Remonstrances were of no avail. On the 21st of November, 1768, Banks was informed by the Viceroy that it was not in his power to permit him to go ashore. The entry on the 26th is very characteristic of the man:

"I myself went ashore this morning before daybreak, and stayed till dark night. While I was ashore I met several of the inhabitants, who were very civil to me, taking me to their houses, where I bought stock for the ship tolerably cheap."

Banks then proceeds to give a clear sketch of the natural features of the place, together with some account of the gardens and fields, the government, religion, and manners. Yet he did not once set foot in the city. His diligence during his clandestine examination of the suburbs may be partially realized when we note that he made a list of 316 plants near Rio.

From this inhospitable reception by the Portuguese, the ship sailed to the even more inhospitable region of the Cape. At Tierra del Fuego, an exploring party from the ship had a terrible experience in the birch-scrub. Banks, Solander, and a few others tried to ascend a mountain some miles from the shore, but they became benumbed by cold, weakened by hunger, and finally lost in the snow. Two of the servants were frozen to death, but the rest of the party came back enfeebled. In a couple of days Banks was again at work with his plants and with his studies of the natives. So that, from the first, we see this wealthy Englishman, who might have led a life of elegant leisure in his library, entering with keen zest into every phase of adventure, taking risks, suffering hardship, apparently with the single aim of adding to the sum of human knowledge. In these days of accumulating wealth we have here the lesson of Banks's Journal. Banks made his fortune fruitful.

From Cape Horn the ship sailed to Tahiti, where Banks employed his time assiduously in collecting illustrations of natural history and in a careful study of the natives. The descriptions are uncommonly spirited, and the conclusions drawn from his observations are generally just. The modest accounts given by him of his part in the daily toil convince the reader that he must have been an admirable companion for such a perilous voyage. There is a vein of humor running through the narrative which lends a great charm to the whole.

New Zealand and the east coast of Australia were next visited, almost every point and bay and river referred to taking its name from some adventure. Banks brings the narrowly escaped dangers, the shipwreck and the partial repair, the drifting in the Coral Sea, and the overhanging cloud of illness, almost too vividly before us. Then comes the voyage of the disheartened to Batavia, the recital of discouragements, and finally the return. Through all the Journal there is kept a sense of proportion which makes it stand as a marvel of sound readable record.

To Wharton, who has rescued Cook's Journal, and to Sir Joseph Hooker, who has rehabilitated Banks's Journal, the sincere gratitude of all who like the true story of maritime discovery is due. There are two other journals which keep coming constantly to the mind while reading the Journal of Banks and the Journal by Cook — namely, that by Darwin, and the notes by Sir Joseph himself in his great treatises on the plants of the South Seas. A spirit of truthfulness and of self-sacrifice in the highest cause pervades them all.

Totem Tales. By W. S. Phillips. Chicago: Star Publishing Co. 1895.

A WORTH considerably beyond any promise of its illustration or of its English inheres in this collection by simple merit of its genuine-

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ness. These are mostly real Indian stories, and, with a few easily detected exceptions, antedate the missionaries. But emphatically they are not "Indian stories, Indian told," as the author fancies. With his sincere if untrained feeling, he might have come near to a real eloquence if he had had precisely the Indian genius of restraint. The aborigine, whatever his other failures, never gets drunk with the sound of his own voice. Mr. Phillips has properly told and retold to his own civilized babies versions of these tales picked up by him among the tribes of the North Pacific Coast, and very lamentably has retained in his book the knee-high attitude of narration. For this, quite as much as for its slack grammar, his literary vehicle is most unsatisfactory. A sustained falsetto is the last tone fit to be used in any putative rehearsal of Indian speech. The nomenclature is shockingly mixed and undigested. How entirely the Indian names are *not* "pronounced just as they are written" here is conclusively shown by the author's own appendix. Most of the illustration is equally grievous to the judicial, and suggestive of the chopping-block. Yet the artist (who is the author) has sometimes an actual inspiration in a tailpiece or touch which is at once Indian and decorative, fairly suggesting the one venture (and success) of George Wharton Edwards in a comparable field.

Yet, despite its verbiage, its sorry grammar, its prevalent scragginess of illustration, and total lack of phonetic system, we could better have spared a better book. The vital fact is that Mr. Phillips has caught and with reasonable accuracy transcribed for us a number of "Chinook" folk-tales; rescuing them none too soon from the disintegration which is so fast destroying primitive folk-lore in all the Americas. It is the first step that costs, now. Time and the men abound for giving the salvage its due literary form and its appraisement in science.

Driving for Pleasure; or, The Harness-Stable and its Appointments. By Francis T. Underhill. D. Appleton & Co. 1896.

THIS is a sumptuous book bound in kid and "suede," printed on thick paper with wide margins and double leads. It is studded with illustrations, to the extent of 124 full page plates. Many of these would grace the catalogue of a wagon-shop. In turning the leaves of this volume, one is reminded of a burlesque Venetian sketch which, on large tinted paper, with an excellent silhouette of the city of St. Mark and an artist's gondola in the foreground, bears this legend:

> "You can bet your bottom dollar
> We are onto this Venice caper:
> A little paint, a little work,
> And lots of empty paper."

But this is only one side of the case; for, while the forty-odd thousand words could go easily into a vest pocket volume, and while there is a superabundance of the photographs of vehicles, the text is sensible and good. The real pictures are admirable, and the sumptuosity well befits a book intended mainly for those who make the driving of "correct" turn-outs a high purpose of their lives. A man who goes about the streets with a ton of coach, four fine horses, and a couple of stalwart grooms, ought not to read a book that would go into any pocket. Unless he has had a groom's training, he can hardly be sure that his appointments are like every one else's in the absence of illustrations like these to guide him.

To the observer of social customs nothing is more curious than the dead level of uniformity to which all horsey things have been brought by those who use the show drive-ways of American towns and summer resorts. There is one right way in which everything is to be done, in any particular year, from the head-stalls of the leaders to the hind boot of the coach. Correct style is simply a close adherence to the prescription of the moment. Unless we know the coaching man personally, it is impossible to determine whether he is a gentleman or only a rich man. However, this is the fashion of the hour in this land of independence and liberty, and we have no fault to find with it.

There are men among the owners of modern turnouts who are good horsemen, and who are wise lovers of good horses, and Mr. Underhill is one of them. Those of us who cannot indulge in all the elegance he dangles before our wistful eyes, may still find stimulus for our imaginations in what he shows us, and especially in much that he tells us. This, for example, is his account of a good coachman:

"A head coachman becomes such after years of hard training under a master (either professional or amateur) who is thoroughly posted, and then only when he possesses a suitable temperament, hands, receptive faculties, application, and appearance, together with the ability to manage men, and the education necessary to the keeping of his accounts, etc. While, of course, those needing a servant so well qualified as a head coachman should be are not numerous, they are sufficiently so to warrant a sketch of some of the training which such a man must undergo.

"Beginning in his boyhood as exerciser, and later as a breaker of colts to saddle, he goes through a hard and somewhat rough school, his instructor probably being considerable of a martinet. Then, selected from among several others of his kind, he is advanced to the harness stable, where for some time he is made generally useful, and is familiarized with the minor details of stable duties; he is taught how to walk smartly, and not with the slouchy step of the plowboy, and how to put a certain snap into his way of doing his work. By degrees, as a strapper, the cleaning of horses, harness, carriages, saddles, bridles, leathers, and all the incidental and additional duties are mastered, and he commences his career as a groom in livery. In this capacity he has to learn a great many little niceties as to the proper way of filling the positions of tiger, carriage, and pad groom. These qualifications mastered, he is passed to the degree of under-coachman, and then, if he is to be further advanced, he must be sufficiently interested in his work to learn the practical care of a horse, his feeding, treatment, etc., in case of sudden sickness (and before a veterinarian can be summoned); he must look into horse-shoeing from an intelligent standpoint, so that he can advise with the farrier as to the correction of some defect in balance or in action; he must be well posted in mouthing and bitting as applied to horses of different temperaments; he must know how to harness his horses properly, and how to drive a single horse, a pair, a tandem, or a four, in a finished and workmanlike manner, and, finally, he must not use liquor to excess. How true the maxim is, that 'a coachman is born, not made'; for with all the requisite making here outlined, the number of men with the keenness and ability to profit by such training is extremely small."

Concerning tandem driving our author says:

"Tandem driving is a most delightful sport, and productive of a great deal of skill on the part of the man who practises it constantly and with a variety of horses. It seems to be somewhat of a fad with coaching and four-in-hand men generally to affect to despise a tandem as beneath their dignity. Such an affectation is absurd, for tandem driving requires the consideration of many points which do not exist in the driving of four; and although the latter sport demands more finished horsemanship as a whole, tandem driving furnishes a field for practice, and the use of hand and whip, which are most valuable to a coachman.

"When one has, for example, two highly strung horses with sensitive mouths which are new to tandem work, he has really one of the prettiest opportunities for the display of finished workmanship and hands, if he would bring these horses to their work properly without the constant assistance of his groom."

There is an old English saying that the seat on horseback makes some men look like gentlemen and others like grooms. The groom-act is thoroughly well done by the rider on the cockhorse—to Banbury Cross—in the frontispiece.

Studies in Ancient History. Second Series. Comprising an Inquiry into the Origin of Exogamy. By the late John Ferguson McLennan. Edited by his widow and Arthur Platt. Macmillan Co. 1896. Pp. xiv, 505.

UNDER any precise terminology this title suggests a paraphrase of the somewhat famous schoolboy composition: "It is hard to study ancient history, because there isn't any." A definition of "history" which might justify this sincere and laborious volume would have to blink the last twenty years and their enlightenments. Dr. McLennan's researches along the lines of human accretion and crystallization are long known. His 'Origin of Marriage' was published in 1876 and again in 1886; a scholarly treatise, as is this "second series," and with the same generic weakness—complete lack of schooling in the field. Such treatises nowadays are measured beside Lewis H. Morgan's demonstration of the classificatory system of aboriginal relationships, the broad conclusions of which have been proved inexpugnable in every field scientifically tested. As all who followed the old controversy know, Dr. McLennan was never able to understand that system; and even in this posthumous volume he continues to protest against the inevitable.

It is again the irrepressible conflict between the closet student and the graduate from the same curriculum plus field-knowledge. There is much curious reading here for such as are aware of the direct work, in the American field, by a small but devoted band of scholars from Bandelier and Matthews down, in the last fifteen years. It would be ungenerous to lay specific blame at Dr. McLennan's door. He had no personal touch with any human remnant from ancient history; and, so far as he is concerned, the present work is seriously fragmentary. The editors frequently confess how unfinished he left the material; had his life been spared he might have made radical changes.

The "ancient history" he had to be content with was of course—and almost without exception—modern accounts of peoples who more or less remain of primitive habit. Nearly all the testimony upon which his theories are based is the inexpert observation of sailors, travellers, and missionaries. Lafitau and other Jesuits, the Franciscan frailes, the Langs, Livingstons, and Calverts—these were honest men. Probably Garcilaso de la Vega, the Inca Pretender, is the only authority quoted who had a specific inducement to falsify, and did falsify. But not one had the ethnologic equipment, and not one was on an ethnologic mission. Curiously enough, the only scientific authority of first rank quoted in this work is the only source the author has seen fit to ridicule. He clearly aims to be judicial, and of many witnesses he detects the incompetency; but his is the fate of his environment, and while he can digest Lafitau and Schoolcraft, he strains at Morgan. As

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